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**To Stimulate Thinking
Rather Than
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**1953-54: Learning At Its
Best**



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Childhood Education

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**To appreciate another's feelings one must
seek to recognize and understand one's own.**

Understanding Others

Through Facing Ourselves

To help a child to grow, a teacher must know the child as a person. This means that the teacher must strive to know himself. Understanding of others and understanding of self are closely interwoven. Self-understanding is especially important to a teacher who would help the child in his efforts to find himself.

IN THE SCHOOL THERE ARE COUNTLESS opportunities for helping the child in his search to find himself. In school the child can discover his aptitudes and abilities. He can be helped to face some of his inner difficulties and to realize that there are limits to what he can do. His attitudes regarding his worth as a person may be affected in important ways since life at school is heavily invested with praise and blame, pride and shame, acceptance and rejection, success and failure.

Everything that enters into the relationship between a teacher and the child has or might have a significant bearing on what a child thinks about himself and how he feels about himself. Everything that transpires in a teacher's dealings with a child might also help the teacher to learn something about himself for his functioning as teacher is to a large extent a projection of what he is.

In order to have insight into the child's strivings and the problems and issues he is coping with the teacher must strive to face the same issues within his own life. These issues are largely emotional in nature and the endeavor to understand oneself and others has a deep emotional meaning. It calls for more

than intellectual cleverness and academic competence.

To appreciate another's feelings one must seek to recognize and understand one's own. To be able to sympathize with the child who is hostile (and all children are, more or less) the teacher must face his own hostile tendencies and try to accept the implication of his anger as it occurs, say, in his annoyance with his pupils, his impatience with himself, his feuds with other teachers, his complaints against parents or school authorities or others on whom he fixes his ire.

He must be prepared to examine and seek to realize the significance of his feelings of being abused, his devices for avoiding responsibility for himself by blaming others. The more a person can face some of the ramifications of his own anger and make some allowance for his tendency to become angry, the more sensitive he can be to the hurts, frustrations, and anxieties involved in another person's anger.

Similarly, to realize the turmoil another is undergoing a person must try to examine his own fears and anxieties. To do so may be more painful and threatening at the moment than to keep pretending they don't exist, but unless he can seek to fathom his fears as these appear in his phobias, squeamishness, fear of misfortune, timidity, uncertain-

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ties, fear of making mistakes, and fear of what others may think of him, his ability to perceive that others are frightened will be quite limited.

Unless a person is prepared to take at least a little note of his own anxieties he is likely to be uncomprehending when children helplessly express theirs. He may even be harsh when children's anxieties break through in such signs as inability to learn, unwillingness to try for fear of making mistakes, impertinence, inattentiveness, restlessness, irritability, unreasonableness, and countless other symptoms which indicate that a child is uneasy and at odds with himself.

To perceive the significance of problems in the lives of others one must be able, at least to some degree, to recognize and face the implications of corresponding problems in one's own life: —One must undertake to face, for example, one's irrational attitudes toward authority as they might appear in a tendency to be servile or rebellious toward people who have power or higher rank.

—One must face the possibility that unresolved conflicts regarding sex might make one appear to be unconcerned or unduly fearful or prudish or harsh in one's attitudes regarding the sexual behavior of others.

—One needs also to examine the possibility that one's demands upon others are tied to impossible requirements of goodness, brilliance, and perfection which one places upon oneself.

—It is possible that one's complacent attitude regarding the damage competitiveness inflicts on some children may be linked to a tendency within oneself to seek competitive triumph over others. Again, one may have a tendency to pity oneself, to feel sorry for bearing so hard a lot, and being so little appreci-

ated by others and thus have trouble in perceiving how desperately someone else might wish to be understood and appreciated.

A person's wisdom as he looks outward upon others can only be as deep as the wisdom he possesses as he looks inward upon himself. The farther a teacher goes in understanding himself and others the more deeply he can realize the common humanity he shares with others, even with those whom he dislikes. The more genuinely he is involved in his own struggle to understand and to face the problems of life the more he can realize this kinship with others whether they be younger or older, or like him or unlike him in education, wealth, race, religion, social status, or professional rank.

Can It Be a Part of Education?

How does one achieve understanding of self? This is a crucial question in the preparation of teachers. It cannot be answered by the usual courses of study, methods, and lesson plans in our teacher-education programs. These may be valuable for other purposes, but knowledge of self requires a different kind of personal involvement than the usual academic course encourages or demands.

One broad principle is this: *To gain in knowledge of self one must have the courage to seek it and the humility to accept what one may find.* If one has such courage and humility one can draw upon many sources in everyday life.

One can learn from experience of life's joys and tragedies. One can profit from self-inquiry into what it might mean that one was so elated or impressed or prejudiced or angry or frightened or depressed after this or that happening. One can learn from seeing a motion picture portrayal of people with emo-

tional tendencies that hold up a mirror to oneself. One can learn from asking why one is inclined to gloat or to inflict pain or to resist so strongly or to yield so meekly. Even to hear a recording of one's voice at a time when one has been expressing grievances, worries, or self-reproach may be a revelation.

A valuable help in self-examination which may be mainly intellectual but might also strike at a deep emotional level is the reading of books written by compassionate people who have made some progress in their own painful struggle to know themselves.

Looking at Our Own Objectivity

The method of "participant observation" offers a promising means of taking a look at oneself. One records what one hears and sees and what one's feelings are as one listens in on a discussion or visits a class and then, preferably with help and through comparison with records kept by other observers, one examines this record. The examination may show that what one notices and fails to notice is determined by habits of thought one usually takes for granted, and that the emotional effect of what one witnesses tells a great deal about one's prejudices. What one perceives "objectively" may be, to a large degree, a projection of one's own subjective state and thus tell more about oneself than about the people whom one observes.

This broad principle also holds: Just as it is within an interpersonal setting that one acquires most of the attitudes involved in one's view of oneself so it is likely that *it is only in an interpersonal setting that a person can be helped to come to grips with some of the meanings of these attitudes.*

A relationship that can promote knowledge of self prevails when one seeks private therapy or joins with others in

a group therapy situation. It exists also, to some degree, whenever one enters into any situation with people, in any walk of life, who can help one to gain perspective on oneself.

In a group setting a person may be helped to hear an echo of his anger or to catch a glimpse of the impressions his fears make on others. The way others express themselves or respond to him may help him to face in a new and self-revealing light some of the evidences of shame, self-effacement, anxiety, vindictiveness, and other outcroppings of deep-seated attitudes of which ordinarily he is not aware. Likewise, to witness a mimicking of his conduct by a child or by a role-playing peer may throw a little gleam of light on unrecognized conflicts.

It is in a setting of joint and common work and airing of self with other people that some of the richest possibilities for self-examination can be found. In the teaching profession we have hardly begun to explore and tap the resources for growth in knowledge of self which people might gain from one another. The committee meetings, staff meetings, seminars, discussion groups, panels, and other enterprises teachers take part in may serve many good purposes but usually they do not serve this purpose. Indeed, they often proceed as though they were intended to defeat the purpose of self-discovery for even when the participants are dominated by emotion they usually make a pretense of dealing with the issue in a reasonable way. When acrimony and anxiety creep in, as often happens, the appearance of being involved in a logical discussion is usually maintained.

Feelings might be aired in a revealing and growth-producing way if people could help one another to learn to be free to come out from behind the curtain that commonly conceals their emotions from others and from themselves. The

writer believes that future developments of vast importance in education will come from plowing this fertile field. Some work in this area already is going on through role playing, group dynamics, and the like. These activities can be revealing and show the way to further possibilities even when they deal with relatively surface material, as often they do.

A couple of summers ago a workshop attended by teachers from schools in many sections of the United States dealt with the school's responsibility for promoting self-understanding. The members recommended that experiences designed to promote knowledge of self should be a part of every teacher-education program. Experience equivalent to what a person might obtain from group therapy under the leadership of a professionally trained psychotherapist was recommended as an example of what each prospective teacher should have. Such a recommendation is

really not far-fetched when viewed in the light of the budget of time and money now invested in the training of teachers.

The exact recommendation is less important than the issue raised. The courage to face this issue is the important thing, and it must be faced if teachers are to realize their potentialities for finding themselves in their profession and for helping others in their search. Knowledge of self can be gained through many avenues and it is not something that is acquired once and for all, like mastery of the multiplication table. Even those who are quite blind to themselves have a little of it, and a capacity to acquire more. One of the outstanding marks of those who have achieved the deepest knowledge is that they still are seeking. No one procedure alone will give the answer since the search for selfhood, when genuine, is pursued through all channels of experience as long as a person lives.

Teachers Learn About Themselves

By FRANCES MAYFARTH

How fifty teachers in a graduate course in early childhood education learned about themselves through writing autobiographies and interaction papers that helped them to accept themselves. Frances MayfARTH is associate professor of education at New York University.

IT WAS SIX O'CLOCK, WEDNESDAY EVENING, fifteen minutes before the first class meeting. Seven students were present when the teacher entered the classroom. Three of the seven students were chatting; two were reading newspapers; another was resting; the seventh sat.

"Hello," said the teacher as she laid materials on a small table.

More students entered the room, singly and in groups, munching the remains of sandwiches and candy bars. An empty coffee carton plunked into the waste basket; moving chairs, dumped books, voices, and shuffling feet mixed in cacophony. Three "old" students stopped to greet the teacher and to report the birth of a granddaughter, the induction of a

son into the Marines, and the conquering of an allergy. One new student asked if this was the right class; another, if he might leave early to catch a 10:10 train from Grand Central Station.

At 6:15 the teacher welcomed the group informally and introduced herself by relating some personal and professional anecdotes to help the students know her better. This first class meeting was the teacher's responsibility. The success of the whole experience depended upon the tone she set, upon the possibilities she suggested, and upon the anticipation she stimulated.

She shared with the students some general purposes of the course as she saw them, outlined its possible content, and suggested some ways of working. But a four-hour stretch is too long a time for any one person to hold forth. What could be done to encourage participation of the fifty students, strangers to each other? What could be done to vary the tempo and to facilitate becoming acquainted?

Previous experience with adult students had revealed the hesitancy of many of them to introduce themselves to a strange group.

"If we are to work well together this semester," said the teacher, "it is important that we get to know each other. Sitting beside you may be a person who can help you with a problem or whom you can help with one of his. Let's take time out to find out about one of your neighbors—who he is, what he does, why he is here, and anything else he may care to tell you. Then tell him about yourself. In about twenty minutes, let's come together again prepared to introduce one other person to the group."

The introductions were informative, often humorous, and stimulated many questions and comments between the students. "Most of us seem to be nursery,

kindergarten, or primary teachers," observed the teacher. "To help more of us become acquainted, how about the nursery school teachers meeting in one group, the kindergarten teachers in another, and the primary teachers in a third group. Those of us who do other things can join one of the three groups. In that way we can become acquainted with the people in this class who teach children of the same age. If your group is too large for easy conversation, divide into smaller groups. Talk about anything you wish and select a member of your group to report your discussion to the whole group. Take time out to have coffee before we reconvene at 8:30."

Reports of the discussions revealed that mutual friends and nearby neighbors had been discovered, some common problems had been identified, marital and professional status had been surveyed, and professional ambitions had been shared. One student had made an appointment to be interviewed for a new job by an administrator in his group.

The solemn, polite quiet of the first two hours gave way to buzzing friendliness which made it easy to suggest a written autobiography from as many students as cared to prepare one. "Tell me anything about yourself that you think will help me to know you better as a person and as a teacher. Include a statement of your purposes in taking this course and what you expect to learn from it. What resources do you have that you would be willing to share with all of us? With what problems do you need help from the rest of us?"

Students Look at Themselves

Forty of the fifty students handed in autobiographies at the second class meeting. Most of them shared personal data such as date and place of birth, marital and professional status, number and

ages of their children, early childhood and school experiences, and their present professional aspirations. Many of them had known hardship and deprivations throughout their lives. Obtaining an education had been and continued to be a struggle. Frankly, freely, and often humorously they wrote about many things. Individual personalities emerged with satisfying clarity, particularly against the background of family relationships. For example:

When I was six years old, mother gave me a small white flour sack. I can see it now hanging on a cotton tree waiting for mother to see it full of cotton I had picked.

Picking cotton was not the only thing I did. I helped harvest tobacco, corn, peas, cane, potatoes, and strawberries. Working seemed like play to me. When I went to the cane field to gather cane, we had a party—we chewed cane. When I went to pick cotton, there was a race to see who would be the first to fill the bag. I enjoyed toasting tobacco for father to smoke in his pipe. Mother often smoked toasted tobacco in her pipe, too.

I was raised in a rather unusual family. My parents were rebels in their times. Jewish intellectuals, they turned on their religion, their families, their economic mores, and in America tried to establish a better world. My father, dreamer and idealist, was a labor Zionist and although my sister and I had no religious upbringing, we were versed in the Jewish language and its culture. Our home was always a gathering place for intellectuals and they were always hungry.

.... about this time I married a delightful, charming, and handsome Irishman. Seaman, sandhogger, trouble shooter, ex-farmer, and soldier of trial and trouble, he introduced me to a merry-go-round existence that lasted about five years. Frankly, with all its heartaches, I loved my Irishman but I guess our cultural patterns were too different. I wanted kids and I didn't want to nurse them on beer bottles. Now I have remarried a man from my own cultural group and to put it mildly, I am wildly happy. (Before the end of the semester, Rachel took time out to have her second child.)

We learned simple skills of writing words;

learning to count, to tell time, and to say pieces taught by our beloved father and mother. Saturday night was bath and shoe-polishing ritual and on Sunday we listened to our father singing in the choir and sometimes playing the organ. I remember, I remember, oh, how I remember how they loved and helped us in every way they could. They taught us to be gentle and kind.

Seventeen months after mother's death, father suddenly died, too. He could not bear life without mother. We were placed in an orphan's home. The head lady was stern and unbending. Her little charges were cuffed, beaten, and pinched for the slightest infraction of rules. My brother was placed in the boys' section and my sister and I were allowed to visit him on Sunday for one hour. This was a miserable hour. We knew nothing to say but simply sat and stared at each other.

How did these teacher-students happen to become teachers? Their autobiographies showed that college teachers in undergraduate courses in early childhood education recruited them into the teaching profession. These teachers had provided them many experiences in working with children, had shown them films about child growth and development, had sympathetically supervised their practice teaching, and had continued to help them on the job after they left college. Childhood love of going to school and parental ambitions were also mentioned as motivating factors in the choice of their profession. "We like teaching," was their consensus in spite of many trials and tribulations.

Most of the students said they enjoyed writing their autobiographies. From the teacher's point of view the autobiographies seemed to open the way for freer communication between students and teacher and eventually between the students themselves. The teacher's summary of the autobiographies, shared anonymously with the class, elicited exclamations of surprise, pleasure and empathy thus serving to unify the group and to extend the feelings of friendship

apparent at the first class meeting. The students also knew that what was shared with the teacher would be read, respected, reacted to, and eventually used as a resource for everyone. As a result of the summary, two more students prepared autobiographies. Autobiographically, then, these teacher-students revealed many things about themselves:

They were proud of being hard workers and dependable people; of becoming self-supporting and personally independent; of achieving academic and professional success.

They liked teaching and loved working with young children; they were ambitious for more responsible jobs, more education, nicer things in their homes, more materials and facilities for working with children, smaller classes, and more guidance services.

They felt the need to become better teachers and people, to do more, to know more, and to be more.

They were generally optimistic about the future and philosophical about their present problems and their abilities to solve them eventually.

They Evaluate Their Learning

With a variety of new experiences under way in the class, with both verbal and written communication flowing freely, and with feelings of group unity strongly in evidence, a second technique for helping these teacher-students learn about and accept themselves was suggested. "Let's take a look at all the experiences we have been having together, select those that have been most meaningful to us, and describe in writing how we are using what we have learned from them in our work with children and in our daily living. We'll call them 'interaction' papers, and perhaps find that we shall want to prepare several of them during the semester."

In their autobiographies the students had indicated their purposes in taking the course and what they expected to learn from it. Considerable time had

been devoted to class discussion of evaluation and criteria for evaluating learning had been both group and individually developed. The students agreed that evaluation was a continuous process and that mid-term and final examinations failed to provide the kind of student-teacher interaction necessary to learn the process. Preparing interaction papers was a welcomed innovation.

During the semester each student prepared an average of three papers with some few students preparing as many as ten when motivated to do so by some meaningful experience. The teacher always read these papers as soon as they were received, commented upon them by writing her reactions and suggestions in considerable detail, and shared at intervals a general summary of their contents with the whole group. As the semester progressed, the interaction papers increased in length; improved in content, style, and organization; and showed growing insights and increased activity in putting learning to effective use in working with children and in solving personal-professional problems. What did the students identify as the most important factor in contributing to their learning?

After several meetings in which the class worked together as a total group with frequent opportunities for buzz sessions and socializing over coffee, small discussion groups developed around common interests and concerns. A part of each four-hour session was devoted to these groups. Plans of work were developed; group members assumed responsibility for carrying out parts of the plans, and ways of sharing their work with the whole group were explored. It was these small groups which the students identified as contributing most to their learning. They learned most and best from each other:

Factors identified by the teacher-students as hindering their learning were the familiar bugaboos of lack of time, facilities, opportunities to communicate; experience in working independently in groups, and clashes between authoritarian and democratically oriented personalities. That they overcome some of these handicaps is evidence of the high degree of cooperative interaction they developed.

Three class meetings were devoted to sharing and evaluating the work of the small discussion groups. Imagination and creativity characterized the presentations. There were extensive exhibits of materials made and collected to use with children, exhibits of children's work with evaluative comments in terms of child growth and development, role-playing skits of staff and parent-teacher meetings, recordings of children's dramatic play with group discussions of their significance, panel discussions of education in other lands and of trends in education today. One group prepared slides showing its failures and successes in learning how to work together as a group. The individual interaction papers were full of student evaluation of their learning stimulated by these experiences:

It is not unusual with the rush of so much going on around us in our little worlds that we pay little attention to what is going on in other countries affecting children. I was truly amazed to see the children of Korea, as shown in Kia's slides, playing on swings, see-saws, and with balls just as our children do. I don't know exactly what I had expected them to be doing for fun but I did not expect this. As Kia showed one lovely slide after the other of her former life in Korea, I seemed to hear as from a tragic Greek chorus, "My land is devastated; my country is laid waste; my home and my family are gone." To what extent am I responsible that this should happen to her country and to her?

The experiences in this class have been rich and rewarding. I have grown not only less fearful but actually am eager to voice my contributions in group discussions. I have come to realize that fallibility is perhaps the most mutual and common human trait and the

corrections and constructive criticism are among the greatest resources in higher education. I have become increasingly aware of the fact that no one knows all the answers and that my contributions may be as important and as essential to the solution of a group problem as those of anyone else. I have become relaxed and find as a consequence that my pupils exhibit less disturbing behavior. New responsibilities have been given me at school, indicating growth in my capabilities. New friendships have been made, but the most rewarding of all is my conscious appraisal of myself—confident, assured, and growing hopefully toward some new goals.

In the students' own words they evaluated their interaction papers as "helped me to identify the factors that helped or hindered me from learning," "provided a person-to-person contact with the teacher," "built me up as an authority in terms of what was important for me to learn and do, not what someone said I had to learn and do," "opened up an entirely new experience far less threatening than examinations, thus giving me confidence that I could learn anything I wanted to learn," "helped me to discover my hidden talents and to find courage in sharing them with others," "made me stop excusing my own failures and start doing something positive for a change," "gave me new courage in tackling my own impossible problems."

These two simple techniques—autobiographies and interaction papers—seemed in a small way to help a few teachers learn about and accept themselves as people and as teachers. Perhaps it is not too much to assume that the more we learn about and accept ourselves, the more ready and willing we are to want to know and to accept others. Through empathy with other human beings peer relationships can evolve—the mark of maturing individuals and societies, the best hope of today's children for tomorrow.

An Inservice Program for Mental Health

Through a variety of cooperative agencies some teachers in Massachusetts are having an opportunity to work toward an optimal level of professional functioning and to sharpen their awareness of the preventive aspects of mental hygiene. Libbie B. Bower is consultant, School Project, Massachusetts Association for Mental Health, Boston.

SELF-UNDERSTANDING PLAYS AN IMPORTANT part in understanding and helping others. Yet little has been done to develop leadership and techniques to acquaint teachers with this area (beyond academic courses). Learning about one's self is a delicate problem. But educators who are the *significant others* (next to parents) in the lives of children, are increasingly aware of the importance of the psychological aspects of their work and strive to deepen their self-understanding.

Over a period of a half dozen years, the Massachusetts Association for Mental Health has proceeded in an empirical way to develop programs in line with current trends both in education and psychiatry, trends which have shifted the focus of mental hygiene away from thinking of it in terms of maladjustment to a preventive program.

This program was set up on varying levels of complexity. The goal was to help teachers achieve not only an optimal level of professional functioning but also to sharpen their awareness of the preventive aspects of their role as classroom teachers. Through courses in mental health, seminars in individual and group psychology, and inservice mental health workshops, a design for teacher-training has evolved using techniques and methods from the fields of dynamic psychi-

atry, social psychology, education, and other disciplines.

Courses in Mental Health

A course, such as "Children's Emotions Reflected in Classroom Behavior," offered a dynamic approach to understanding human behavior. Such a course was presented at the invitation of local school systems in a dozen townships in the state. It was sponsored by Boston University-Harvard Extension Service and Tufts University, and carried graduate and undergraduate credit. The leader was trained in analytic psychiatry with experience in teaching and working with children.

The objective of the course was to see to what extent the *feelings, thinking, and actions* of teachers could be influenced. It was hoped that through such an experience teachers would not be overwhelmed by some of the behavior problems in the classroom, that they would develop greater self-confidence to deal with them and in the end would not only do a better job with their children but also would be more comfortable in what they did. It was important that the teacher become aware of how he was affecting the situations because of his own point of view. Instead of regarding interpersonal relationships as "correct" or "incorrect," understanding was di-

rected toward discovering the reasons behind the behavior, toward the understanding that behavior is caused. There were 15 two-hour sessions—the 30 hour period divided as follows: 1/3 to 1/2 devoted to didactic lectures; 1/3 to 1/2 devoted to discussion of material presented; and 1/3 devoted to free discussion, interaction within the group, and discussion of the assignments.

The didactic lectures were planned in such a way as to present the genetic development of personality from the psychoanalytic point of view. The concept of the unconscious and its influence upon personality development was brought in.

In the material presented, the policy was not to introduce any new terms—medical, psychiatric, psychoanalytic or otherwise—unless absolutely indispensable for clarity, and then the terms were carefully defined. It was felt that presenting a new vocabulary would be confusing and perhaps become an obstacle to real understanding of the material.

The setting the leader encouraged was the easy relaxed atmosphere which allowed many situations to develop which were similar to situations one might expect to occur in the usual classroom—such as boisterous conversations which would delay the beginning of the class, delays in returning from the five-minute recess between hours, conversations by small cliques which would disturb the rest of the group. These situations were deliberately encouraged and were used during discussion periods to determine their meaning and best methods of handling them since this kind of behavior by implication is often typical of classroom behavior.

The most positive evidence that something happened and that the attitudes of the teachers changed is revealed by the

striking contrast in attitudes and language used in the two case studies, one of which was presented after the first few sessions and one presented toward the end of the course. The first case study usually indicated a puzzled, sometimes hostile attitude toward a child, who is "bad," "spoiled," "trouble-maker," "lazy." During the first few sessions there was a great deal of anxiety displayed when the various ways in which the teacher revealed his unconscious through his own writing was discussed. The second case study displayed more feeling and understanding, and even though conclusions might be entirely erroneous, revealed an attempt to see what is behind the overt behavior that is troubling the teacher and the child.

Inservice Mental Health Workshop

The mental health inservice workshop for teachers, representing another level of teaching, developed out of Inter-Agency Committee meetings with the state departments of education, public health, mental health, Boston University School of Education, Massachusetts Society for Social Hygiene, and our Association. Representatives of these agencies working as a team and cooperating with local teacher associations helped design the structure, procedure, and content of these workshops. The pattern of the workshop varied with the needs, interests, and problems of the school personnel working together toward a common goal, such as, for example, *accepting children*. This requires successful intercommunication of understanding attitudes, feelings, and information.

The preplanning phases were cooperatively talked through with the result that when the workshop commenced, the stage was set for the recruitment of evaluation, resource, public relations, and social committees and their responsibilities.



Group experiences go a long way toward shaping personality development.

Photo courtesy Margaret Hampel

ties, as well as the selection and inventory of problems of concern to the teachers.

The workshop continues to be problem centered. It does not deal with theoretical or intellectual concepts. The workshop provides a way of working together to bring about a new quality of participation and acceptance, of understanding the leadership role and problem-solving. Teachers are encouraged to share experiences around common concerns. They are helped to see the commonality of problems and to broaden their perspective. Teachers who come for "answers" grow to see that there are no "pat" answers for handling behavioral manifestations that seem difficult.

Resources for general assemblies such as provocative films, pamphlets, case conferences with the local mental

health clinic staff, selection of key people with special skills and knowledge, as well as techniques such as role playing, sociograms, evaluation and observer's feed-back, help to sharpen teachers' understanding about themselves, group interaction and on-the-job problems.

Seminars

The seminars concern themselves with feelings rather than intellectual concepts of mental health principles. The goal is new awareness of oneself and new capacity to respond to this new understanding. The announcement states "These seminars deal primarily with problems which participants present from their own experiences at work. The situations which develop within the seminars are utilized as far as proves possible to further self-understanding and understand-

ing of others. Although the approach utilized by the seminar leader resembles in some ways what takes place in psychiatric treatment, this seminar is essentially an educational experience and is not offered as a substitute for such treatment."

The seminar leaders' training must be such that they are aware of unconscious processes and understand their place in group interaction. It was agreed that it would be practical to include only psychiatrists with psychoanalytic background and experience. The leader's task was to handle resistances and group tensions, forces working against group growth and cohesion. His task also was to encourage work toward movement for growth and change through interpretation of material presented, thus making use of skills peculiar to his training.

The leader recognizes the worth of each group member, accepts him where he is in his development, and helps him, by his attitude, to more competent functioning. Group members come to know other members, feel free to express themselves more openly in relation to their own experiences and feelings. A group member may talk about failure—other group members sharing such an experience, with support from the leader, participate in the discussion and together they create a climate of permissiveness and acceptance which has educational and therapeutic effects.

It becomes apparent that in the group learning situation there are forces at play which facilitate relative freedom with which members are able to talk about their feelings. When members of groups support one another they encourage members to grow and develop to get new understandings. The help derived from discussion of personal problems may be referred to as a process of clarification and enhances self-under-

standing and the understanding of others with the chief purpose of improving the group member's functioning level on the job. The seminar approach with an experienced clinician as leader offers an opportunity to deepen educator's psychological understanding of himself, his students, and his colleagues in a way which could be more meaningful than other more academic approaches like some college courses and lectures. It offers the possibility of dealing constructively with some of the minor subjective anxieties and conflicts of "normal" individuals who are fulfilling important functions in the community.

Education and Group Dynamics

Three types of experiments in teacher training designed to help one learn about and accept himself and others have been briefly described. The method in all three is educational help based on concepts of the dynamics of the group process. Social science has reinforced the common belief that group experiences go a long way in shaping personality development. Controlled studies are adding clearer notions of how group association operates to influence the way people think and behave. Group members presenting problems close to the everyday life of people profit not only from contact with the leader but from interaction with each other. A final answer will have to await basic and action research.

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Acceptance and Rejection

In Primary Grades

What can be done to extend children's acceptances of differences? This article is based on data on acceptance and rejection on the primary school level and on methods of developing the basis for capacity to accept increasing range of differences. Hilda Taba is professor of education at the San Francisco State College, California.

TEACHERS ARE INTERESTED IN PATTERNS OF RELATIONSHIPS because an emotional climate is created which determines whether teaching and learning are easy and smooth or whether they are beset with cleavages and disciplinary problems. Further, individuals who are not accepted by their peers are handicapped in developing good work habits and in using their intelligence.

Even though primary children do not have a strong social organization, their relationships are marked with fairly distinct patterns of acceptance and rejection. Sociometric studies show variations in these patterns from group to group. Some groups have open networks; others tend to focus their choices on few individuals, while isolating many children. Still others are marked by fairly closed clusters or pairs, or show frequent rejections.

Factors Determining Patterns

To extend the basis for acceptance it is important to understand the factors which affect the patterns of acceptance and rejection.

First, acceptance is not solely a problem of individual characteristics, and hence capable of change by only changing the individual. It is also a problem of group climate and its standards and values, and often requires a simultane-

ous change in the individuals who are not accepted and in the values and standards of the entire group.

Second, the values and standards which create acceptance and rejection are learned in the respective cultural environments of the family and the neighborhood play groups. In American society there are many variations in what children learn regarding what is acceptable and not acceptable in behavior and appearance, depending on the social class level, racial and religious background, and ethnic origin of the respective family and play groups. It has been pointed out, for example, that lower class children are apt to learn to get status by fighting, while this method is frowned upon by middle class families. Some children have learned to express their feelings, including anger, in overt behavior while others are taught early to repress their feelings or to express them in certain socially more approved ways.

Children learn early not only certain different types of behavior, but also to reject certain types of differences in color, religion, dress, intelligence. Trager and Radke demonstrated an early rejection of differences in skin color and religion. (Helen G. Trager and Marian Radke Yarrow in *They Learn What They Live*, Harper, 1952). Sociometric studies in the Intergroup Education Project sug-

gested a tendency to reject both the extremely intelligent and the very slow children. The degree of this rejection of differences tends to correlate with the extent to which children were subjected to rigid black and white judgments on what is right and wrong and to autocratic treatment in school or at home.

Third, the school itself is a living culture, with its own emotional and social climate. It also creates conditions which either favor latitude in accepting differences or build a disposition to reject deviations. Some schools expect and enforce strict conformity to their ideas of good behavior, and leave little room for differences. Such environment usually teaches rejection of all deviations from the norm, besides creating a brittle atmosphere in which rejection becomes almost a psychological necessity. Competitive atmosphere tends to produce pressures which nourish hostility toward differences of all sorts, while democratic and permissive atmosphere on the whole disposes children toward capacity to absorb and to accept differences.

Finally, teachers need to study objectively the dynamics of interpersonal relations, because there are marked differences in what teachers think brings acceptance and rejection and the standards by which children accord acceptance. In many studies of social acceptance, the children whom the teachers chose as highly acceptable were ignored by their peers. In reverse, many children whom the teachers described as trouble-makers and show-offs, or too shy to be considered, turned out to be highly acceptable by their peers. These discrepancies were especially sharp in classrooms with many lower class and minority children.

Extending Capacity to Accept

It is of course possible to help children to extend their capacity to accept

differences, in themselves and in others, and many teachers have done so successfully. The main condition of the success is to focus the program so that training is possible simultaneously in the development of social skills, in understanding of how human beings tick, and in extension of sensitivity or capacity to identify with differences, problems and values, and motivations.

One possibility is in using the classroom itself as a laboratory for coping with differences by grouping children across their differences (heterogeneously) rather than according to their similarities (homogeneously). By combining children with different skills, personalities, and backgrounds in committees or work and play teams, it is possible for them to extend their ability to feel at home with differences and to extend their skills in coping with them. (Taba, et al., *Elementary Curriculum in Intergroup Relations*, American Council on Education, 1950. Ch. VI for details on principles and methods of grouping.)

Teachers also have used the very heterogeneity in the values and concepts children bring to school to establish the idea that differences are common, natural. When different ideas and feelings about the common aspects of life are allowed to play on each other, extension of everyone's concepts and attitudes is possible.

One first-grade teacher used free play to explore contrasting ideas about the home and family. She was observing children playing breakfast. The mother was cooking breakfast, the father was getting ready to go to work, and the baby was yelling. When it came to deciding where to put the breakfast table, one child said, "We must put it in the kitchen, that's where we eat breakfast." Another one countered, "Oh, you don't eat breakfast anywhere except in the dining room. That's where we eat." A third one said, "The breakfast is always eaten in the breakfast nook." Later on the "father" was leaving

for work and kissed the "mother." The "mother" slapped him. The boy looked up nonplussed and said, "My father always kisses my mother before he leaves." To which the "mother" replied, "I know that my father leaves when the door slams."

These children were playing out different styles of family life, expressing different meanings of family behavior, each unaware that there was a range in these patterns. These diverse ideas about breakfast and leave taking can be related to each other to learn that there are many ways of having breakfast, as there are in doing many other things, all acceptable depending on circumstances.

Discussion of incidents in the classroom or incidents from stories can be used to develop a clearer understanding of why people behave as they do, what the role of feelings is, and what alternative ways there are to solve the problems. These discussions of causes of behavior and of feelings are especially useful because young children are notoriously egocentric and incapable of putting themselves into other people's places.

An example from a first grade illustrates this process. (Verona Harris in *Explorations in Character Development*. Albany Unified District, Albany, California, 1953. P. 32.)

The teacher read *The Smallest Boy in the Class* by Jerold Beim to the class. The story is about a boy named Jim who was called "Tiny" by his classmates. He shouted loudest, told tallest stories, drew biggest pictures, pushed and shoved and was a regular show-off. Then the class went on a picnic and Nancy lost her lunch. Everybody was very hungry and didn't want to give up any of their lunch. "Tiny" proved to be a big boy by sharing his lunch. The teacher then pointed out to the class that there are many ways of showing how big you are. Eventually "Tiny" gains the respect of his classmates and they call him "Jim."

The story was read to the part where the class goes on the picnic.

Teacher: "Why did Jim act that way?

Raymond: "He wanted the children to see him."

Doug: "He didn't like to be small."

Nancy: "He should take his turn."

Pam: "It made him feel big to push others." (This girl is the most mature child in the group.)

Henry: "He shouldn't tell lies."

Jackie: "You should always be good and take your turn and do what the teacher tells you."

Teacher: "How do you think the other children felt about 'Tiny'?"

Doug: "Didn't like him."

Marjorie: "They got mad because he was mean."

Deanna: "Other children did not like to be pushed."

Tony: "If you push somebody they push you."

Robert: "I'd push him out of the way—I wouldn't like him."

Stories involving differences have been used to extend sensitivity to differences. All children grow up in a cultural shell in a sense that they adopt the values and behaviors which are part of their primary social groups and use them as universally right. The school needs to extend sensitivity to differences in values and feelings in order to prevent this parochial sensitivity from hardening into prejudice and rejection and fear of differences.

Verona Harris (p. 34) shows the process of using stories containing conflicts over differences:

Our next story experience and discussion was about Spotty (Margaret Rey—Harper, 1945). This is a story of a family of white rabbits who feel disgraced because one of the young rabbits is spotted. The family is somewhat disturbed about the fact that Spotty is spotted. Then comes the day they are invited to visit the grandfather. He has never seen these rabbits so the problem arises of what to do about Spotty.

Teacher: "What could be done about Spotty?"

Jimmy: "Spotty could be painted white."

Bill: "Take him along anyway, be good to him." (This child has a sister who has an open spine and whose mentality is impaired.)

Gary: "Give him away to a family that has spots."

Donna: "Take him to a pet shop and trade him for a white one."

Teacher: "How do you think Spotty would feel if his family traded him for someone else or gave him away?"

Charles: "He would feel awful hurt."

Pam: "It would make him feel bad."

Raymond: "It would be better to paint him."

Bill: "His mother could dye his hair. My mother dyed her hair once."

Teacher: "Could anything be done to make the grandfather change his mind about Spotty?"

Doug: "Spotty could let grandfather know he was good."

Tony: "Be good. Spotty should be good."

Deanna: "Trade grandfather away."

Teacher: "Have you ever met somebody who didn't like you?"

Jackie: "I went over to play with some colored children and they threw sticks and stones at me."

Teacher: "Do you play with them now?"

Jackie: "Yes, when they get to know me they didn't throw stones."

Lynn: "When I moved, a girl I didn't know lived near me. We both went outside and said, 'Hello'. Then I said, 'Hello' and said, 'Can you come over and play?' She said, 'I'll ask my mother.' Her mother said she could and now we are friends."

David: "Chuck wouldn't let me play with his wagon but I let him play with my scooter and he let me play with his wagon. We took turns."

The teacher noted the gaps in sensitivity in her class, such as proposing solutions which disregarded Spotty's feelings, and the inability to generalize from Spotty and his spots to people and their differences—which diagnosis led to further choice of stories and discussions.

These experiments show that the problems of acceptance and rejection can be dealt with on the classwide basis and within the content of ongoing curriculum.

A Tribute Worth Earning

MISS JOHNSON,

On behalf of the sixth grade we would like to give you these lovely flowers.

Many of us have discussed about you and have found out that we have learned more in the sixth grade than in any other class. You have patience. You have a lovely personality. We can see plainly that you love children. Miss Johnson, you have respect for us. You have been with us a short time, but, boy, it has been fun.

You have let us try out new things. You had many things for us to work with. You like to help people. If a child is having trouble you don't say, "It's no use." You try to see what you can do. You're willing

to do anything that comes along the long road of teaching for our school. You were faithful for the student council. You worked to keep the room clean so we would have a better place to work in.

You, Miss Johnson, have helped us to understand other people. You helped us to realize that we are not superior or at least we shouldn't feel that way. You thought of new ideas for us. You helped us to bring our thoughts out through discussions. You helped individuals with their work. You listened to all of our thoughts—not important, and important, ones.

Miss Johnson, we love you.

Written and read by LEE

Understanding and Accepting

THE CHILD WHO IS BLIND

The child who has a handicap is the victim of his parents' attitudes and feelings and of the attitudes that society holds toward him. The importance of each handicapped child to be a child among children in a beneficial two-way relationship is pointed out by Virginia M. Axline, associate professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

"I know a secret!
I know a secret!
You are blind and you can't see!
I'm not blind and I can see!
I know a secret!
I know a secret!"

Over and over again the high-pitched voices of young children chanted this sing-song verse that they had made up. It was all part of a game they were playing. Eyes blindfolded, they groped around chasing the sounds of voices. Then again came the chant, this time a little different:

"I know a secret!
I know a secret!
You are blind and you can see!
I'm not blind and I can't see!
I know a secret!
I know a secret!"

Here was a group of children, happily playing together, spontaneously creating verses that were the children's way of expressing an understanding and acceptance of children who are blind and children who can see. This was a mixed group. And the children who were blind were more skilled in chasing an illusive voice and noise than the children who could see when they wore the blindfold. Accepted and permitted to be a child among children, the blind child can be a happy, effective member of a group. Like

all children, some things he does better than others. Like all children, he has his happy moments and his sad moments. Like all children, he has his good moments and his bad moments. His primary problem is to be accepted as a child—not as a child who is different, but as a child who has differences but is at all times basically like all other children.

A four-year-old girl walked across the reception room in a child guidance center. She wore a very attractive hand-crocheted coat and a spring hat trimmed with a bunch of cherries. She had poise and charm.

"What a beautiful little coat," said a woman who was also waiting in the reception room.

"My grandma made it," the little girl replied.

"Come here a minute and let me see it," the woman said. The little girl walked directly up to her, stopped by her side.

"It is crocheted," the little girl said. "Some kind of stitches like shells all over it."

"Yes, it is lovely," the woman said, fingering it. "My mother used to crochet—this takes me back in my memories. She crocheted such lovely things like this. It is a beautiful coat."

"Thank you," said the little girl. "And did you notice my new spring hat? There are cherries—red cherries. Did you notice?" She lightly touched the cherries.

"Yes," the woman replied. "It is a very pretty hat. And you are such a nice little girl."

"Thank you," the little girl replied. "I think you are nice, too." Then, turning

away from the woman, she called, "Mother? Are we going now?"

"Yes. Here I am," her mother replied. She took the little girl's hand and, as they left, the little girl called out cheerfully, "Goodbye. Goodbye, everybody who is here."

The woman looked puzzled. Then she spoke to the receptionist. "Such a lovely child. And yet she gave me an odd feeling. I don't know. She didn't look at me. And yet she was certainly a lovely child. What is—was there something *wrong* with her?"

"Nothing *wrong* with her," the receptionist replied. "She is blind—"

"Oh," the woman interrupted. "I am so sorry. If I had only known, I would not have spoken to her."

"Then I am glad that you did *not* know," the receptionist answered. "Because she likes to be noticed and treated like any other child."

What would have happened if the woman had known? She would have watched in an unnatural stillness—watching someone who was different and, in her mind then, unapproachable. And the child would have been deprived of an opportunity to establish contact with the world of people made up of friends and also of just-met strangers.

And yet how many people draw back in this same manner—ill at ease, afraid, insecure when meeting someone who is different.

Blindness is certainly a handicap to an individual, but the lack of acceptance of themselves as individuals is a greater handicap than the blindness.

Any child's behavior is influenced by the relationships he has with other people. These relationships are shaped in many ways by the attitudes the persons have—basic attitudes toward themselves and others. These attitudes determine the way in which one individual perceives another person. They also determine the way the individual perceives himself. They are cumulative, sometimes circular, often changeable. They are a part of the individual's feelings, values, experiences. They are many times pro-

jections of the individual's own insecurities and inadequacies and fears—and of his feelings of adequate personal worth and security.

The Handicapped and His Parents

When a baby is born, his advent into his family has been anticipated with many feelings, attitudes, concepts. This baby is a new life that has been created by the mother and the father. The baby is a projection of themselves. He is their contribution to life and his person is their creation. If it should happen that the baby is born with some kind of difference that is called a handicap, the reactions of the parents are charged with the emotional reaction of shock, disappointment, a sense of failure and inadequacy, a feeling of guilt. This is a reaction to the unexpected, to the unknown, to the need to readjust expectations to the reality factors.

It is at this point that parents need understanding and help in order to work through the tangle of emotional reaction with honesty and purposefulness and achieve a way of meeting this experience that grows out of their feelings of increasing understanding and security.

The child who has a handicap is the victim firstly, of his parents' attitudes and feelings, and secondly, of the attitudes that society holds toward him. The parents who look beyond their disappointment and who learn that their child is not "something different," that their child is like all other children in that he has certain basic emotional needs—to be wanted and loved and accepted and given a chance to grow—those parents will be able to see in their child the potentialities of wise parent-child relationships. They will be able to maintain a balanced, healthy relationship that is based upon sensible give and take, a blend of freedom and responsibility.

Some parents find it difficult to overcome their feelings of inadequacy and guilt and add to the child's "handicap" the greater burden of their uncontrolled emotional reactions. Rejection or overly-supportive treatment often restricts the child's abilities to develop his capacities adequately. If he is kept in a dependent position, he is stifled in his attempts to learn by personal experience. If too much is done for him, he does not experience his adequacy to cope with the situations he faces. If he is ignored and left out, his opportunities are limited.

The Handicapped Meets People

The attitudes and reactions of people toward any handicap will determine their behavior when they are confronted with an individual who has such a handicap.

Teachers, other parents, children react to a "handicap" in many different ways. Quite often a quick alibi is set forth as an excuse for excluding a child who has some handicap in a group of other children. Probably the most commonly used excuse is "It wouldn't be good for him" to be a member of a group, or "It wouldn't be good for the other children."

We need to keep in mind that all children are basically alike and that all children have some differences from others. We need to remember that there is no objective evidence that can be quoted in educational or psychological studies that supports such alibis. We need to separate our feelings and the problems of such experiences and bring to them constructive planning and objective evaluations before we set up policies and procedures that determine what position we might take in educational thinking.

Children accept a person who has differences much more readily than do some adults. Most young children may

be curious about a child who has some handicap but, given an opportunity to get to know one another, these children are quick to accept one another.

This lack of acceptance and stereotyped concept of a child who has some kind of handicap is a form of prejudice that grows out of many factors. If it is due to lack of experience and limited personal acquaintance with the behavior that is related to certain disabilities, it is more readily overcome when faced honestly. If it stems from deeper emotional difficulties so that the adult sees the child who is handicapped as a threat to his own personal strength and security, then there is the possibility of the child who has some handicap being used to satisfy the extravagant emotional needs of the adult. Out of this reaction one sees the smothering kind of supportiveness, the martyr-like attitudes that focus attention on the "sacrifices and goodness" of the adults.

All Children Need a Stable World

All children need a stable world where their basic relationships with people are firmly built upon security. This security grows out of a feeling of being loved and wanted and accepted and respected as an individual with freedom to grow and responsibility to utilize capacities.

There is no difference in the needs of any child—with or without handicap. We see the emotionally deprived child in both groups. We see the emotionally healthy child in both groups. It seems possible that we might confuse the causative factors when we note the behavior of a child who has a handicap because "pity" is sometimes used to cover up our own lack of respect for an individual.

Perhaps the individual who is handicapped in some way makes it easier for us to confuse our inner feelings toward



Eva Luoma, Weirton, W. Va.

**There is no difference in the needs
of any child—with or without handicap.**

others by pointing toward one certain kind of behavior that is different—and so confuse and cloud our responsibilities to clear out any elements of prejudice we might have and see the worth of the individual. There needs to be a balance of responsibility for accepting one another. It should be a give and take relationship. Then perhaps we, too, could chant as the children did:

"You are blind and you can't see
I'm not blind and I can see
You are blind and you can see
I'm not blind and I can't see!"

Perhaps we could then realize that this is another case of the need to break down stereotype thinking and see the assets and liabilities that everyone of us has. Perhaps we could then realize that the greatest handicap anyone can have is the inability to know first ourselves and the part our attitudes and feelings and personalities play in determining our relationships with others. Perhaps then we could provide more functional planning for the total development of every individual as a parent, as a teacher, as a member of society.

The Teacher Beloved

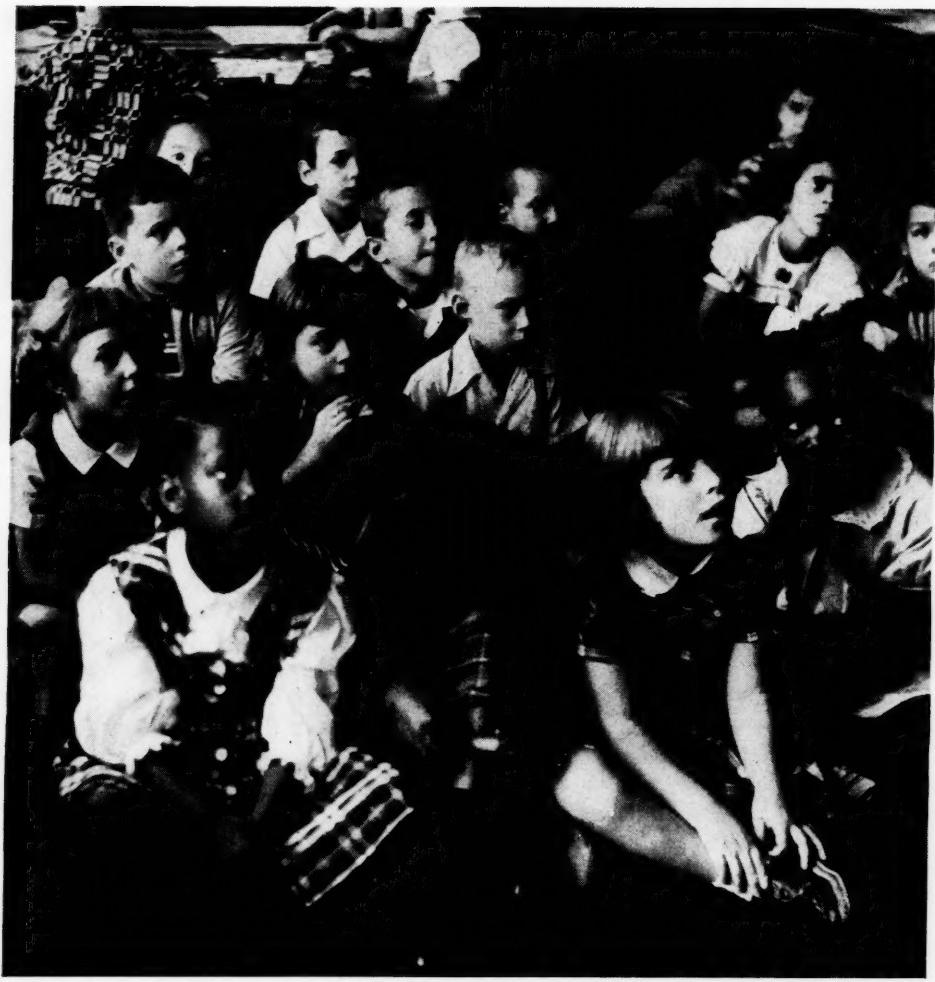
A REALLY DESPERATE NEED OF YOUNG CHILDREN IN THIS CHAOTIC AGE is intimate contact with fine persons, individuals who respond to life's varied situations in ways that are called good—ways that always have been called good—ways that always will be called good. There are many children on both sides of the tracks who have never known a really fine person, never will know such a person unless it be a teacher. Yet one such person may so influence a child as to outweigh the evil effects of a sterile or vicious environment.

The principle involved is relatively simple. Stripped of technical terms it is merely this: If the teacher is beloved, all of his responses will be admired, accepted, and almost unconsciously adopted by his pupils. All that he stands for has increased weight in their eyes, "looks good" to them. Thus for good or ill the child becomes in some measure the image of his beloved teacher.

What an opportunity yet what a responsibility! The teacher is on the spot. As nearly as he can he must be every day the kind of person he would have his pupils grow to be. He must seem to be even more for there is a loss between giver and taker. Thus his moral responses must be slightly exaggerated to compensate for that loss. He makes the promises understood by children and rather obviously keeps them; he shows righteous indignation in the presence of cruelty; sympathy and help in the presence of distress; he lets his pupils enter his reasoning to see him avoid fallacies and reach just conclusions; he quite openly shows the spiritual side of his nature.

Is he insincere? Is he an exhibitionist? Has he monopolized the activity and reduced his pupils to the role of spectator? No, on every count. He is sincere for he has no intention to deceive. He is dramatizing, not so much himself as someone better than himself, someone he would like to be. He is no monopolist for he mounts the stage only at those crucial moments when moral responses are in order. He keeps his humility for he must say, "May God help me this day, for I am the beloved teacher, and whether I will it or no, these children will grow in some measure to be *like what they think I am.*"

ARE THERE ANY REWARDS FOR SO DIFFICULT A TASK? SURELY THERE is one of personal growth. One cannot dramatize a finer self without growth in that direction. Will one be remembered by one's pupils? No, not distinctly. Some teacher of the later years will be remembered. But it will not matter. The reward comes in knowing that one has written his signature large and well on many lives; that long after he has gone his invisible but steady hand will be on many a shoulder; that he has served his generation well and made his life significant.—FRANKLIN H. McNUTT, *associate dean, Graduate School, Woman's College, University of North Carolina, Greensboro.*



Courtesy, "Inland News," Chicago

The Impact of TV

By OAK LANE COUNTRY DAY SCHOOL OF TEMPLE UNIVERSITY FACULTY

TODAY, BY SIMPLY TWISTING A KNOB on the TV set, even a five-year-old can command a continuous array of performances. Half a century ago any of these performances could have been afforded by royalty alone. The fairy-world magic of the lantern show; the mystery, excitement and glamour of the lands of make-believe; death-defying adventures on land, sea, and in the air; a world-sized storehouse of facts and theories are as commonplace accouterments of the average home in 1954 as are the broom, the bed, or the dishes to be washed. No previous knowledges, no ability to read, compute, or render value judgments on the part of the viewer, is necessary to experience these wonders.

What are the effects and implications of this tremendous change in the child's living? How does this continuously available, limitless store of unrelated entertainment affect the development of children? Finding the answer will be the goal of social scientists and educators for years to come. No decisive evaluations can be made without years of preparatory study as material is correlated and analyzed, results assessed, and behavior observed. In the meantime, however, some questions can be raised, some apparent tendencies recognized.

Before the advent of television the greatest influence on the personality of a child, except that of his own home, was his school. Today the average child is apt to spend more time in front of his television set than in his classroom. What are the immediate effects on a school program of this constant opportunity for TV watching? Is there much effect? Is the effect limited to certain

age groups? Does TV influence classroom study? Outside play? The conduct and behavior, even the apparent moral standards of the groups?

The teachers of the Oak Lane Country Day School observed and recorded some of the actions, statements, interests, and behavior of children in their groups that seem to be directly traceable to television viewing.

Oak Lane, situated on the outskirts of Philadelphia, enrolls children from three-year-old nursery through junior high school. The student body is composed of several religious groups, is interracial, and represents a rather wide economic range heavily weighted with middle class professional and business groups. All but five of the 260 students at the school have television sets in their own home—some in their own room. The few who have no television have easy access to sets of neighbors or relatives.

TV Touches Life at School

As the first graders came into the classroom just before 9 o'clock, they found the short greeting the teacher had written on the board. It ended "... have a Happy Day." "Yes," chorused the group of children, "Be Happy, Go Lucky;" and another school day with some free programming, courtesy of the network channels, began.

One axiom of education is that information to be meaningful must be understood and should relate to and build on existing knowledges and previous experiences.

During a fourth-grade social studies class the children were talking about prehistoric animals. After a discussion of the term "prehistoric," several children asked how anything could be known about creatures who lived before the days of written records. One student gave a full and vivid account of a television program she had recently seen on "Cavalcade of America." The program was

The faculty of Oak Lane Country Day School, the laboratory school of Temple University, Philadelphia, cooperated in gathering the material for this article. Estelle R. Roddy, editor for the school, compiled the material.

about an archaeologist who had dug up and assembled the bones of an animal judged to be prehistoric. The child was very clear in her mind as to what the archaeologist's efforts proved in determining what animals had once roamed the earth, and was able to communicate her understanding to the group.

A group of four-year-old kindergarteners interrupted a story about miners to discuss what goes on beneath the ground. "Lions live under the ground," volunteered one child. "No they don't," calmly replied a little girl. "They live in jungles like Ramar of the Jungle."

Ten years ago jungles were out of the ken of most four-year-olds. Occasional pictures from "Little Black Sambo" or the *National Geographic* couldn't do much to clarify so remote a concept. Today four- and five-year-olds can live in the jungle five days a week. Stories and books read aloud in the preschool or elementary classroom take on new meaning, open up new vistas, for the listeners have previous intimate knowledge about the subject matter.

Two four-year-old boys found a worm on the playground. The children compared it to a snake and one of the boys told of a TV program he had seen the night before about large rattlesnakes that live in the desert. "Even the man couldn't touch those snakes," he said, "because they were poison. See, I can hold the worm; it's not poison. The man had to use a kind of long thing like a great big scissor—only not sharp to cut—to pick up those snakes. A desert is so hot and there is no water."

In the past only those children whose parents had the desire and ability to read and discuss many books with them were able to acquire such a valuable background of information. Today it can be acquired by simply turning that small round knob.

Five years ago finding the information necessary to complete an assignment had to be done the hard way by

plowing through research texts. Today it can often be much simpler.

The 14 members of the Assembly Committee—representatives from grades one through nine—decided to do an assembly program on the Life of Franklin. When the information that had been gathered was reported, three of the children—the representatives of the second, third, and fifth grades—reported on facts they had learned about Franklin from television programs.

We as teachers, ask: Is it too easy? Is information obtained this way more or less likely to be retained by the child? Does television discourage reading?

A seventh-grade girl, who has difficulty reading and whose vocabulary is limited, watched the "Fall of Troy" on a "You Are There" presentation. She immediately became interested in the story of Helen and Paris, looked for books in which to learn more about them, and entered the world of Greek Mythology which, without so dramatic and easily understandable an introduction as CBS had arranged for her, would have remained "Greek" to her for many years to come.

Such programs as "You Are There" can produce very strong motivations for learning. The second-grade children saw a program about how the "Star Spangled Banner" was composed and conveyed their enthusiasm and interest to their classmates. A detailed study of patriotic music has been the result.

Experiences such as these occur daily. Every day, in one or more grades of the school, discussions and knowledges which relate television entertainment to academic subject matter are initiated by the children. The teacher is faced with the very difficult task of controlling the stimulus. To outlaw all references to television programs would be suicidal, even if it were possible. Television experiences must not be ignored, partly because of their strong motivating power, and mostly because they play so primary a role in lives of most children

today. We know that growth is all-inclusive. As important a factor in a child's existence as television must be built upon. If we refrain from recognizing it and using it we, in the schools, are touching only a portion of the child.

Using TV as a Supplemental Aid

One of the ways in which a teacher may control the influence of television viewing is by deliberately using programs as supplemental aids to learning, directing the children's attention to a particular program at a specific time. In our junior high school social studies classes, for example, the teacher has frequently presented information about the subject matter of a TV program slightly in advance of a scheduled show. The class has done some reading in textbooks and then has watched—at home—the TV program. The teacher is using the program as one more research source and also as a way of increasing interest.

How far this basing of subject matter on TV presentation could be carried is a challenging question. Could a social studies program for an entire year be based on the yearly programming of such a show as "You Are There?" Would learnings be increased by regular, planned use of this audio-visual method of presentation? One danger, evidence of which crops up constantly in the classroom, is the difficulty—well known to courts of law—of having two or more eye witnesses see the same thing. Books can be reread to clear up misconceptions, but it is harder, at least at the present, to resee a television program! Could this problem be alleviated if descriptive scripts of the program were available?

In what other ways can home-time television viewing be fitted into a school program? How important is it to extend knowledge already acquired from TV?

"I saw it on TV," is now a statement of authority, perhaps ranking as high as "I read it in a book," and competing strongly with "My mother told me."

But even though the story of "Columbus Discovering America" cannot be completely portrayed in a half-hour program, the child viewer is likely at the end of the program, to consider that, with Sergeant Friday, he has all the facts. The enormity of television could produce diminishing returns. Without satisfactory guidance and help, might the average child TV viewer end up knowing less and less about more and more? How can we combat this? Do teachers need to point out limitations in TV viewing as they build on its myriad advantages? Can we help children recognize television as a jumping off place in the search for knowledge instead of a solution?

Television, in spite of its wealth of stimulations and ideas, could produce, if we are not careful, a limiting rather than an extending of experiences and thinking.

We find a good example of this in the play of small children. The preschool teachers at Oak Lane report a considerable increase in the *kinds* of dramatic play in which their youngsters participate. They say that five years ago the majority of preschoolers spent free-play time in the doll corner playing "house" while a few engineers were busy being "trains." Today the mommies and daddies and engineers are joined by cowboys, Indians, circus animals, Willie the Worm and his dogs, robots, and Supermen who roam the playground. This is because the number of experiences of these young children has been vastly increased by television. Few three- or four- or five-year-olds had enough experience with cowboys and circuses to recreate them before the advent of TV.

Dramatic Play Expanded?

But (and it's a very large "but"), in spite of the great increase in *kinds* of play, the play itself is much less varied so long as it relates to television programs—and most of it does. The children do not create these TV characters; they simulate them. Little children have a passion for accuracy. So when "Ramar of the Jungle" is the play of the day, the child is Ramar and tries faithfully to copy every intonation, gesture, and behavior pattern as he has seen it on his TV set. If he fails, or omits, or copies imperfectly, his classmates soon put him straight. A teacher of the four-year-kindergarten reports this incident:

Jo Ann—"Well, what are you going to play today?"

Bruce—"Lone Ranger."

Roy—"Well, you be the Lone Ranger."

Bruce—"You be another one."

Jo Ann—"There's only one!"

Roy—"You're not the Lone Ranger—you don't know who you are."

Bruce—"Yes I do! I want to be Range Rider."

Roy—"I am."

(They ran over to the Victrola)

Bruce—"Turn that off or I'll tell the sheriff!"

Roy—"OK."

(They ran to the doll house corner)

Roy—"Pretend we can't escape."

Bruce—"OK." (He went up the steps.)

Roy—"I'll go straight down."

Bruce—"You forgot to call me Range Rider."

Roy—"All right, Range."

Bruce—"You forgot to call me Range Rider, you only said Range. On a range you keep horses, on a Range Rider you don't—see?" (Roy goes downstairs, then calls Bruce.)

Roy—"She's dead." (Points to Jo Ann who is pretending sleep.)

Bruce—"Yes, she's dead again. You didn't call me Range Rider."

Roy—OK Range Rider."

This incident is typical. It occurs every day, over and over again, in the play of kindergarten and primary grade children, and always the play attempts to copy faithfully the television original.

Today small children have, from the instant of first meeting, common interests and experiences to share and build upon. With "Lone Ranger's better than Range Rider" or "Do you watch Willie, The Worm?" as opening gambits, play is off to a fine, fast start. Preschool teachers believe that group play starts earlier than it did in the past and involves more children. The common experiences which formerly had to be searched for diligently by the children or carefully arranged by the teacher are now tailor-made by television.

Dramatic play based on TV is not, of course, limited to preschoolers. The older children also base much fantasy on major network programs: cowboys, detective and crime exploits, space adventures. The humor and jokes of nursery school and junior high are borrowed from the well-paid gag writers—"Strange things are happening," "Just checking," "And away we go," and "Dum De Dum Dum" are the quick repartee of almost every age group.

Budding Script Writers?

As the children grow older and dramatic play is less in evidence, the influence of TV viewing becomes apparent in story writing. Oak Lane teachers find that many children in the fifth and sixth grades, and often in the junior high school, construct and model their stories to follow the format of popular programs. "I saw that on TV" several children will challenge when a classmate has finished reading aloud. Usually the child is unaware of how closely he has copied a TV presentation he saw some months ago and which he has all but subconsciously forgotten. More often, however, the work is a frank and stated imitation of TV programs, and parodies on "Dragnet" and "Rocky King, Detective" flow in prodigious quantities from

the pens of uppergrade authors. Even TV commercials exert a strong influence on the pens of student writers; witness this beginning of a story popular with third-grade boys:

"Once there was a man named Phillip Morris who had a friend named Herbert Tarryton. They went for a ride on a Camel. They went to a town named Chesterfield. They all rode to Pall Mall down the hill . . ."

Much that is fine, creative and original stems from television influence; much that is stereotyped, imitative, lacking in imagination and thought does also. How can teachers direct the stimulus of TV into creative areas? How much will television affect the writing pattern of our adults of the future. How good or bad might this influence be?

Creating in Art and Music?

The same tendency to imitativeness which we seem to find in play and writing as a result of TV viewing occurs also in the allied fields of art and music. A whole new storehouse of music has been opened up for children. Even adults may be shocked to discover how well they can sing the titles to these new nursery favorites: "Halo, Everybody, Halo," "Be Happy, Go Lucky," "Ajax, the Foaming Cleanser," "Brush Your Teeth With Colgate," "Sagamore 2-2900." All these tunes—and many more—are sung continually by preschoolers as they go about their activities. They have become a new body of folk music.

What does this mean? One thing it seems to mean is that children know more tunes now than they did in the past. Does it also mean that the child who used to hum her own song as she dressed her doll now carols the praises of "Motorola TV?" Can a music teacher capitalize in some way on this large group of airs and melodies that so many

young children share? Is rhythmic and melodic readiness hastened or hindered by this glut of simple melodies that pour continually into the ears of children?

The teachers also report that younger children seem to feel freer about taking to their feet and dancing when rhythms are played than they did in the past. After all, they have been watching people dance every day, via their TV sets. But the children want to imitate what they have seen; three-year-olds attempt ballroom dancing, four-year-olds try to tap or do the Charleston. Is the concept of "doing what the music tells you" more difficult for children to understand now?

Artistically speaking, television has fired the minds of youthful painters by familiarizing them with many new concepts which can be expressed by crayon or brush. The flat, arid desert, the whirling void of space, the frozen stretches of Arctic wasteland are viewed almost daily by program followers, and subsequently may be recreated on school canvases. Children need creative outlets to express their personal emotions about their thinking and experiences. Is television, by increasing experiences, increasing the need for more creative arts opportunity? Certainly TV gives children more ideas, more knowledge, more situations to recreate. This should be one of the unmitigated blessings of television. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Some programs present an instructor slowly and carefully drawing an arbitrary subject, such as a covered bridge, while children sitting in their own home, carefully copy as he draws. Children may call this copying of a predigested picture creative art because they are doing the drawing. To teachers who believe, however, that wholesome expression comes from children recording real

experiences in their own way after they have assimilated them, this can be extremely detrimental. In describing this technique, the Oak Lane art teacher reported the following experience which occurred immediately after a vacation period:

The medium for the day was clay—not that we have special days for special media, but the majority of the children preferred clay that day. Immediately upon sitting down at the tables, all the children (first graders) made a large ball. Then they each made a medium size ball, and then a small ball. They stacked one on top of another, added long ears, and it became "Snow Bunny Rabbit." This was the first time I had ever met mass hypnosis eye to eye. Up until this time this same group of children was imaginative, creative, ingenious to the point of competing on "how different can mine be from yours." Of course, the culprit was a children's TV show.

Reading, Writing, and Spelling?

As children sit in front of their TV sets, they receive audio and visual stimulation in the most compelling manner that highly trained and highly paid experts in the field of communication and public relations can devise. In back of all the glamour and fairyland is the desire to sell a product. The name of this product is sung, spoken, flashed in print, spelled out with pointer and bouncing ball, pointed to and underlined over and over, under highly attention-getting conditions.

One five-year-kindergarten boy plays Superman every Tuesday. He arranges a blanket around his shoulder as a cape to which must be pinned the letter "S." Now he prints it himself. It is extremely doubtful that this child would have taken a pencil to hand without a need as urgent as this one. Is he interested in "S's" when he sees them off Superman's cape? Will he soon want to print other letters now that the "S" has been mastered?

An Oak Lane four-year-kindergarten

teacher reports that the children in her group have, for the past two years, been more interested in attempting to write words or letters than they ever were in the past. Most of them easily recognize the brand names of products advertised in magazines or brought out for use in the classroom. One preschool teacher brought a shopping cart filled with empty boxes to the four-year-old's playground. As the children clustered around they picked the boxes from the cart and quickly "read" off their names, explaining to the teacher that they had "seen them on TV." This teacher has noted, however, that these same children do not recognize brand names when they see them in other than the familiar place.

None of this is evidence, but the question remains: Will this constant repetition of words shown, read aloud, sung, and illustrated on television affect the beginning teaching or learning of academic basic skills in American schools?

Questions Still To Be Asked

Primarily, in this brief and inconclusive survey, we find that television has increased immeasurably the kinds of experiences children are having. Children in all our groups and grades come to school with considerably more familiarity about many more subjects than was true in the past. We also know that different children react differently to the same stimulus, so that individual responses to television will vary greatly.

In the other areas we merely raise questions, and there are many areas we have not touched at all. What effect does TV have on the mores and moral code of school-age children? We do not know. Preschool teachers report that quite often when they limit or curtail behavior that seems dangerous or interferes with the activity of other children in the group,



Photo by Marion Perry, University of Fla., Gainesville

Today small children have, from the instant of first meeting, common interests and experiences to share and build upon.

the offender challenges, "That's what Roy Rogers does," or "I have to hit him, I'm Superman." But offenders, especially young ones, have always been prone to quote an authority as vindication. We question the uniqueness of television's role. This is one of the problems that needs, we feel, many years of professional research.

Does television cut into time that should be spent on school work preparations? Certainly. But if it weren't television wouldn't it be something else—movies, books, radio, outside play, checkers? Is television much more than a ready and willing boon for the inevitable procrastinator?

What about the raising of fears through false information, the increase of emotional tension through overstimu-

lation or fear-inspiring programs? Our preschool teachers report that on some days there is a definite overexcitability on the part of the children, and that on some of these days it is possible to determine that many of the children had watched a particularly exciting program the evening before. But the evidence is inconclusive; the problem, we believe, is one that must be studied by psychiatrists, psychologists, and educators for many years to come.

What we have attempted to do is to cite instances where the activities in classroom or playground procedure appear to have definitely changed since the advent of television, and to raise some questions about the ways that this behavior might be channeled to produce positive gains.

Make It With and For Children

One of a series of articles from material collected by members of the Make It With and For Children Committee of ACEI, Adele Rudolph (Philadelphia), chairman.

Of Thee We Sing

IT WAS A WISE MAN, INDEED, WHO SAID, "GIVE ME THE MAKING of the songs of a nation, and I care not who makes its laws." (Andrew Fletcher Saltour, 1703.) Analyzing some of our songs, the fifth graders found that they portrayed the life of our people dramatically and interestingly. Soon the theme for our next unit evolved, adapted from a line of "America," and we began our search for songs which would acquaint us with our country.

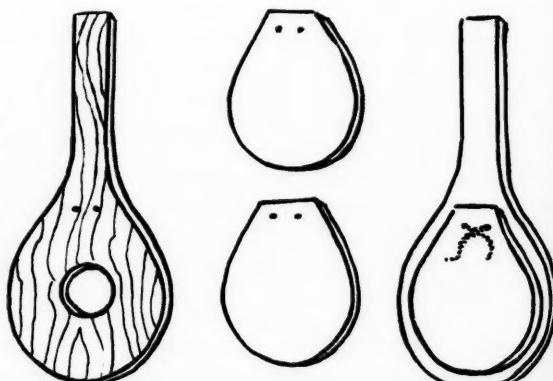
We came to know those songs which are primarily folk lore and those with historical background. We became familiar with the musical instruments associated with the songs and with the various regional groups from which the songs came. Soon someone suggested that we make some of these instruments, so that we might accompany our singing of the songs.

Drums and tom-toms were made using tin cans and mixing bowls and fiber drums from the drug store. To produce the tambourine jingling sound, roofing caps or carefully cut-out ends of small cans were nailed securely to $6\frac{1}{2}$ " x $6\frac{1}{2}$ " frames. Cymbals were discarded pot covers to which we added handles. We designed original shapes for our clappers and experimented until we could produce the characteristic rhythmic sound of castanets.

Sensitive teachers watch for leads into new studies.

Wise guidance results in enrichment.

CLAPPERS (CASTANETS): Transfer pattern (original design) for paddle (about 5" x 9") to $\frac{3}{8}$ " wood or $\frac{1}{4}$ " plywood. Cut handle from pattern and trim about $\frac{1}{2}$ " following outline. Use this pattern for the two smaller pieces. Make all 7 holes before sawing out shapes. Assemble, tie securely but loosely enough to clap. To produce the sound and rhythm of castanets, hold handle between fore and middle fingers and with a twist of the wrist set pieces in motion.



Closed cigar boxes and skin-covered tins made good resonating bodies for our one-string instruments. We found that tuning these and locating the notes of the octave on the finger board were valuable experiences in listening attentively, in evaluating the pitch of the tone, and in discovering that the shorter the vibrating part of the string the higher the pitch. Luckily the school piano had been tuned recently and it helped us find the key note (No. 1 of our scale). Tightening the string by turning the peg, moving the bridge a little, and then plucking the open string, we found when the string "sang the best" and what note it sang.

Scientific re-
search at any
age-level.

ONE-STRING INSTRUMENTS:
For resonating body of fiddle, guitar, or ukelele use closed cigar box or other strong shallow (about $2\frac{1}{2}$ ") box. Sound-holes in lid are $2\frac{1}{2}$ " to 3" long and length of bridge apart. To cut out, bore small hole, then use coping saw. For resonating body of banjo use shallow box or tin with lid and bottom removed. Later, one opening is covered like drumhead (See: WE MAKE OUR OWN, March 1954.)

A wedge shaped finger-board and a peg or $1\frac{1}{2}$ " x $\frac{1}{4}$ " thumbscrew and 2 nuts are located on the long stick (about $24"$ x $1"$ x $\frac{1}{2}$ "). To make $\frac{1}{4}$ " slot in thumbscrew, use coping saw with water as lubricant.

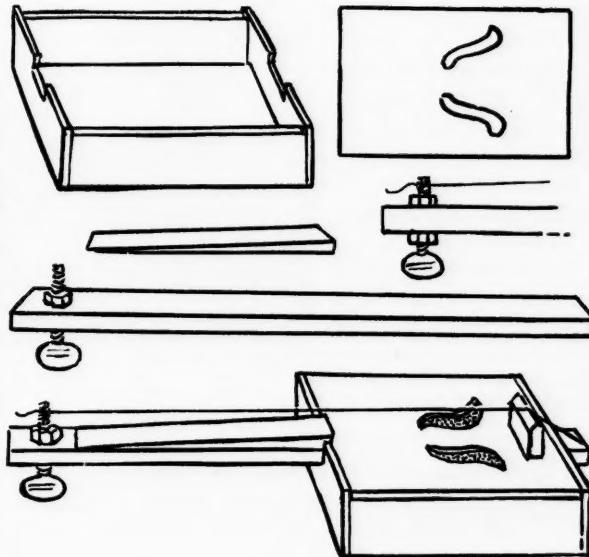
Long stick passes across center under lid or drumhead and fits snugly and tightly into two cuts directly opposite each other in resonating body. Lid or other covering is fastened securely in place.

Bridge (about $2"$ x $1"$ x $\frac{1}{2}$ ") is notched to guide the string.

Fasten string to nail or screw eye on short end of long stick and to thumbscrew at other end. Use steel wire (E-string from music store) for all instruments or use strong linen thread (book-binder's linen thread #20) for the fiddle.

Turning thumbscrew, stretch string tightly. Pluck open string to find its fundamental tone. Mark places on finger-board where fingers must touch when pressing string for each of the different scale notes (possible to play 8-note tune on one string).

Experiment to produce sound using a plectrum or pick, a small steel bar or round bottle, a bow made of linen threads tied to a bent $\frac{1}{4}$ " dowel stick, or by plucking the string.



The making of the xylophones was the greatest challenge of all. The secret of success, we now know, is patience and being satisfied only with the high standard "that sounds exactly right." Each newly made key must be in harmony with all those that have preceded it. When a key has been accepted as "true," then the next key may be made—and not until then. Humming the scale or familiar songs that can be played on the keys already perfected is a great help to many children. (Row, Row Your Boat: 1-1-1-2-3-3-2-3-4-5-8; Mary Had a Little Lamb: 3-2-1-2-3-3-3; Three Blind Mice: 3-2-1-3-2-1-5-4-4-3-5-4-4-3-5-8-8-7-6-7-8-5-5; Oh Susanna, Old Folks at Home, Annie Laurie).

Constant experimentation and evaluation.

Perfecting the tone of each bar before cutting the next. The pitch of its tone is raised by shortening the bar. Pitch is lowered by making bar thinner. To shorten bar, carefully stroke an end across sandpaper (frequently test for pitch) or saw off paper-thin straight slice from end. To make bar thinner, make a light saw cut across center back (deepen if necessary) or take a tissue-thin shaving off back. Mark each accepted bar with its scale number.



The experience of searching the environment for suitable discarded materials, experimenting with a purpose in mind and discovering new uses for them, helped the children in becoming more resourceful. Since only a relatively few instruments of each type were to be made and the standard of workmanship was an integral part of the instrument itself ("It has to be right or it will not work well"), the children felt the need for working in groups. Together they listened for pitch and made up their minds in naming the tone or accepting the key. They experimented to discover the characteristic tones in the things around them, to decide which when tapped gave a ringing sound, to create 3-note and 5-note tunes. The project opened a rich new world to their natural curiosity and imagination.

Standards set by project have more weight than those set by teacher.

In our class are children who represent many nationalities. They form a typical cross-section of America. One of our greatest findings was that music is truly an international language and understandable by all. There was great satisfaction, too, when the children used these instruments for playing songs for themselves or for others. To the observer, the greatest appeal of all was the child's glow of achievement: "Look at this, I made it myself!"

—ADELE C. FREEDMAN, G. Washington School, Philadelphia.

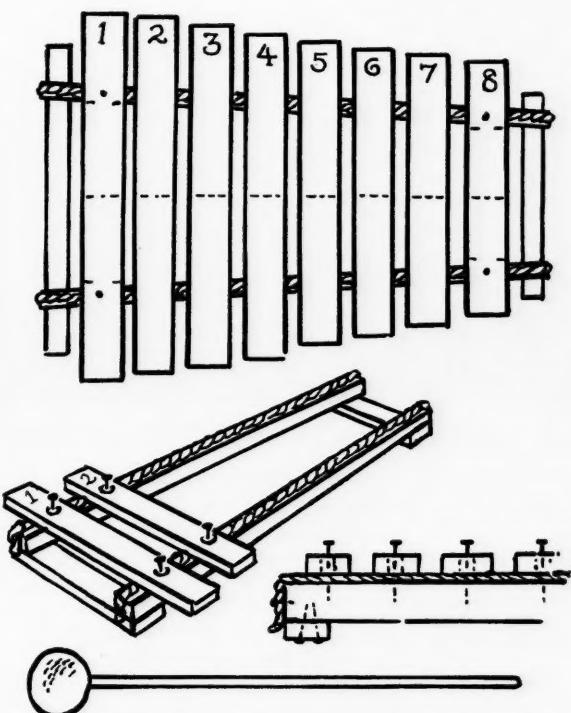
XYLOPHONE: Use strips of wood uniform in width and thickness, free of knots, splits and roughness; new wood—California redwood, poplar, white wood, basswood—in short lengths (24" x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ ") or "stock strips" (about $\frac{1}{4}$ " x $\frac{3}{8}"); thin narrow bars or rounded sticks from discarded furniture.$

For keys, use only strips that have a clear ringing musical sound when held lightly near one end and struck at center with a tapper—wooden bead on $\frac{1}{8}$ " ($\frac{1}{4}$ ") dowel stick. (3 short strips for 8-note xylophone).

For base, use 2 "rejects." Lay cotton roving or strip of felt full length of wood (tack to ends) so musical bars may be free to "vibrate" when tapped.

To make keys, saw off $8\frac{3}{4}$ " x 1" x $\frac{1}{2}$ " (9" x $\frac{1}{4}$ " x $\frac{1}{8}$ ") bar from "musical" strip; lay bar across base strips; match with tone at piano or name it the first tone ("do" or 1) of scale. In general, each bar for keys Nos. 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, being whole tones, will be $\frac{3}{8}$ " ($\frac{1}{2}$ ") shorter than previous perfected bar; for keys 4, 8, being half tones, will be $\frac{3}{16}$ " ($\frac{1}{4}$ ") shorter than 3, 7.

To locate holes for nails in tuned bars, find the quiet or "nodal" points—sprinkle sawdust on top of bar; tap it rapidly until much of sawdust collects in two little piles; mark center of each—here, wood vibrates least of all and holes may be located. Do this for longest and shortest bars. Place ends of base strips on pieces of wood ($\frac{1}{4}$ " x 1"). Arrange all keys in sequence—about $\frac{1}{2}$ " ($\frac{3}{4}$ ") apart—with base strips centered directly under nodal points of first and last bars (the points in all inbetween bars will probably be over cushion). Outline location of base strips on end pieces; saw off surplus; nail together to make frame. Replace keys in position on base; carefully mark for location of nails over cushions. At each mark bore hole larger than nail ($1\frac{1}{4}$ " #15 or $1\frac{1}{2}$ " #14). Drive nail perpendicularly through center of hole into cushion and wood. Nails must not touch musical bars which rest loosely on cushions.



To the Reader Anywhere in the World: The committee is eager to hear about things that are being done similar to these. Please share your information—descriptions, directions, recipes, drawings, photographs. Send the material to the committee in care of ACEI headquarters.



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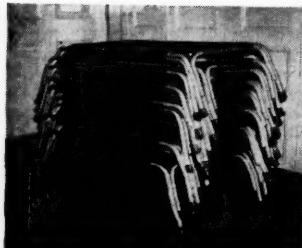
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NEWS and REVIEWS

News HERE and THERE . . .

By FRANCES HAMILTON

New ACE Branches

La Puente Valley Association for Childhood Education, California
Sacramento County Association for Childhood Education, California
Oneonta State Teachers College Association for Childhood Education, New York
Portland State College Association for Childhood Education, Oregon

Nellie E. Brown

Nellie E. Brown, ACEI life member, who retired from the Bangor, Maine, schools after teaching 34 years, died February 26 in Springfield, Mass.

ACEI Headquarters Building Fund

Recent contributions to the ACEI building fund have been encouraging indeed. Sizable sums have come from individuals who are interested in assisting the Association to improve and increase its services to those concerned with children. The fund now totals \$11,931.45.

New Professional Journal

Children is the title of a new professional journal on services for children and on child life published by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The publication which will appear six times annually replaces *The Child*, a very familiar publication of the Bureau. The launching of the new publication coincides with the forty-second birthday of the Children's Bureau on April 9, 1954.

Plan of Action

International members of ACEI and ACE branches have received questionnaires asking them to state what they see as the most urgent needs of children in 1955-57. The Plan of Action of the Association for Childhood Education International will be based upon the suggestions made. It is important that many people give thought to the future and participate in the preparation of the Plan of Action.

ACEI Conference

All of the registrants at the 1954 ACEI Study Conference held in St. Paul, Minnesota, April 18-23 will receive copies of the May

ACEI Branch Exchange devoted to reports of the conference. This summarization of the discussions, lectures, and other experiences of the week offers an over-all view of current thinking in the field of elementary education. The theme of the conference "Effective Education for All Children" is the title of this report. The account of each session or event was prepared by a member of the Association chosen for that particular responsibility. The many readers of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION who could not attend the conference will want to be familiar with the thinking that developed there. Copies may be ordered from headquarters. Price, \$1.

Hyo Sik Sim

In 1951, establishment of an ACEI Study Grant Fund, to be used for a teacher of Korea, was authorized by the Executive Board. Contributions of branches and members of the Association to this fund made it possible to bring Hyo Sik Sim to the United States last summer. Miss Sim is completing a year of study at National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, under ACEI sponsorship.

In the 1954 ACEI Study Conference in St. Paul, Miss Sim brought greetings from the Seoul ACE. The people who attended the Conference had an opportunity to become acquainted with Miss Sim.

Conference on Social Work

The 7th International Conference on Social Work will be held in Toronto, Ontario, Canada, June 27 to July 2. The theme of the Conference is promoting social welfare through self-help and cooperative action. ACEI will be represented by Dorothy Pape of Toronto.

Travel

Opportunities for travel to Europe and to countries in the western hemisphere have been arranged by the NEA Travel Division. Tours are of various lengths and have been planned in such a way as to be both educational and enjoyable. A number of colleges offer credit to people taking the tours. For further information write to the Division of Travel Service of the NEA, 1201 - 16th St. N.W., Washington, D. C.

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Books for Children . . .

Editor, VERA PETERSEN

THE TREE ON THE ROAD TO TURN-TOWN. By Glenn O. Blough. Illustrations by Jeanne Bendick. New York: Whittlesey House, 330 W. 42nd St., 1953. Pp. 48, 7 x 9 3/4 in., \$2. Here is the story of a great oak tree from the time a frightened squirrel dropped an acorn and a boy unknowingly stepped it down into some soft mud, until the time this acorn became a huge tree, having survived the attacks of a number of enemies, and was finally cut for lumber.

It is a book that is worth while rereading to primary children whenever one wishes to point up changing seasons. And it is a story in which all the science material is correct—for the author is a specialist for elementary science, U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Mr. Blough has written the tree's story in very readable style and Jeanne Bendick has extended the information with well-drawn illustrations.

This book is a source of interest and learning to youngsters who see it not only as the life history of a tree but also as an account of the interrelationships of nature.

GLOGLO. By Garreto. Illustrations by the author. New York: Roy Publishers, 30 E. 74th St., 1953. Pp. 58, 9 1/4 x 8 1/2 in. \$2.75. This is an attractive circus book relating the tale of Gloglo, an accomplished young seal. While en route to America Gloglo is pushed overboard by a jealous performer, but Gloglo swims to a nearby iceberg where she discovers many other seals. Sometime later an explorer finds Gloglo and recognizes her as the star performer of the Trina Circus, whereupon she is captured and returned to the circus. Her friends, Toto the elephant, Valenti the fire-eater, Nilson the strong man, and Bongo the king of the clowns are all delighted to have her return. The villain has been properly dealt with and all ends well—with two double page spreads opening out from the end of the book, giving a circus panorama four times the size of the other pages.

The book will amuse circus-minded children in the primary grades.

(Continued on page 448)

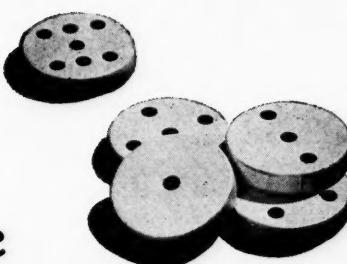
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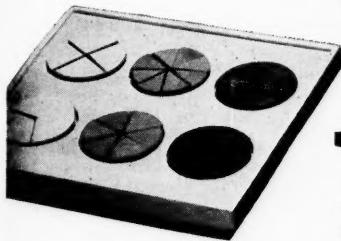
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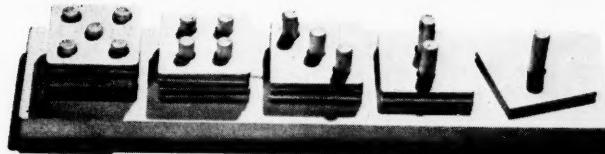


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CURRICULUM IN THE MODERN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

By ROBERT H. BECK, Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education, University of Minnesota; WALTER W. COOK, Dean of College of Education, University of Minnesota; and NOLAN C. KEARNEY, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Charge of Research and Curriculum, St. Paul Public Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota.

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433 pages. 5 $\frac{1}{8}$ " x 8 $\frac{3}{8}$ " Published 1953

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Books for Children

(Continued from page 446)

BURMA BOY. By Willis Lindquist. Illustrated by Nicolas Mordvinoff. New York: Whittlesey House, 330 W. 42nd St., 1953.

Pp. 96, 6 x 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ in., \$2. An exciting story for intermediate grade youngsters is this well-written and convincing account of a young oozie (an elephant rider) who goes into the jungle to get one elephant and discovers another—Madja Koom, the mightiest of all elephants in Burma. The lad knows well what the grownups say about Madja Koom. "He has gone mad and for two years now has led a herd of wild elephants killing natives and demolishing their homes. Madja Koom must be killed!"

The lad Haji, whose father had been Madja Koom's oozie, loved the great beast and had been protected by him when he was a small child. Haji could not think of having Madja Koom killed and one night, in the face of almost certain death to himself, leapt down upon the great rampaging beast and finally conquered him. In a stirring climax Haji is hailed by the villagers as Madja Koom's new oozie.

Stunning illustrations by Nicolas Mordvinoff make this a choice book.

MAGIC MAIZE. By Mary and Conrad Buff.

Illustrated by the authors. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2 Park Ave., 1953. Pp. 77, 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ x 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ in., \$3. Magic Maize is the poignant story of a Guatemalan youth who has received by way of some gringos (white men) twenty kernels of unusual maize. Unbeknown to his father, who would have abhorred accepting anything from gringos, and who would surely have considered all this a bad omen, the boy secretly planted the seed high on a hillside among the ancient, lava-covered Mayan ruins. While doing so he discovered a marvelously carved jade earplug.

Months later when some gringo archaeologists took Fabian along to help explore the ancient ruins they found the matching earplug. On the same day great torrents of rain came down and his father's fields were ruined. It was then that Fabian brought fortune to his family, for the gringos paid him handsomely for his ancient earplug. The white men asked if when they came in a year's

(Continued on page 450)



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Books for Children

(Continued from page 448)

time they might take Fabian and send him to school for they believed with more knowledge and wisdom he would become the leader of his people. It was agreed, then Fabian took his father and brother to the high hillside to show them his full-grown magic maize.

This book cannot be labeled "exotic but unfair" for though it gives a colorful account of the country, it truthfully includes prejudices and superstitions that hamper the advancement of the people. A book for the eight to twelves.

THREE APPLES FELL FROM HEAVEN.

Unfamiliar Legends of the Trees. By Natalia Belting. Illustrations by Anne Marie Jauss. Indianapolis: Bobbs Merrill, 724 N. Meridian St., 1953. Pp. 158, 5½ x 8½ in., \$2.50.

This interesting collection of eighteen folk tales from many different countries takes its title from the formula ending of Armenian folk tales: "Three apples fell from heaven—one for the one who asked for the story, one for the one who told it, and one for the one who gave ear to it."

The saying has several facets of meaning one of which serves to remind us of the golden rewards of storytelling. Another is its particular use in this case as a title which points up the fact that all these tales are about trees. A book for reading or telling in the intermediate grades.

THE POPCORN DRAGON. By Jane Thayer.

Illustrations by Jay Hyde Barnum. New York: Morrow, 425 Fourth Ave., 1953.

Pp. 48, 6½ x 8¼ in., \$2. "Dexter was a dragon with a green scaly body and a long twisty tail. He had short knobby legs. He had wings like a bat's, which he would be able to fly with when he was older. Like all dragons, Dexter had a hot breath." One day when he sighed a deep sigh a cloud of smoke came out of his mouth. "Why, look at me!" said Dexter. "I'm blowing smoke!"

So delighted was the young dragon that he went about showing his smoke to all the other young animals who finally got so tired of being puffed at that they left him completely alone. The disconsolate dragon wandered off by himself among some tall cornstalks and fell asleep. "Then he dreamed the

(Continued on page 454)

Books for Adults . . .

Editors, Dept. of Education

NISTC, DeKalb, Illinois

A MANUAL FOR FIRST AID FOR MENTAL HEALTH. By Sidney L. Green and Alan B. Rothenberg. New York: Julian Press, 8 W. 40th St., 1953. Pp. 278. \$4. Do you remember the "old family doctor book" that grandmother rushed to consult when an indisposition attacked one of us? For the first time mental health is now presented in a more authoritative way. The authors present some twenty-five typical situations that are likely to cause maladjustment in children. Examples are: unexpectedly learning of adoption, birth of a sibling, traumatic sexual experience, unusual punishments. In each case a somewhat formal presentation is given: the situation, several case studies of such events, what not to do, what to do, and topics for discussion.

The book presupposes a considerable background of psychology, and seems at times too technical for the average parent. The glossary at the back of the book makes only a beginning, with only fifteen items. An index would make material more easily accessible. It seems that there might be some danger that readers would too easily consider themselves experts after reading the book. However, it does present a wealth of valuable material so that one locates the necessary information covering his particular need. It should be within reach of parents and teachers.—Reviewed by HOMER HALL.

THE BABY SITTER'S GUIDE. By Mary Fur-long Moore. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 432 Fourth Ave., 1953. Pp. 120. \$2. This is a delightfully written book, especially for teen-age baby sitters. It is full of practical suggestions on physical care of the child, appropriate play activities, and procedures for preventing or coping with a variety of emergencies. The author has drawn deeply on her own experience as a sitter to make her points more vivid. The book is particularly strong in its emphasis on the responsibility of the sitter for human life and on the kind of physical care that keeps concern for the child's mental health in the foreground.

The chapter "Why Behavior Differs" is disappointing in its overemphasis on behavior norms for specific ages. The concept is well abstracted from Gesell, but apt to be misleading for the teen-age sitter. Chapter 7, "You and the Child," goes a little further toward building a broader understanding of factors in behavior, although this spot needs strengthening. In general, this is a book which both parents and sitters will welcome.—Reviewed by ELEANOR VOLBERDING.

ABOUT BOOKS AND CHILDREN. By Bess Porter Adams. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 383 Madison Ave., 1953. Pp. 575. \$6. The author, a former elementary-school teacher and a mother of three children, shows that she knows books and child development, and does an excellent job of integrating the two. She suggests which books or types of books appeal to children at different developmental levels, why they do so, and how literature plays certain roles in their lives. She suggests guidance for children's reading by helping them select the literature that fits their interests and needs.

Appendices contain information about awards for children's literature, titles of books about children's literature for parents and teachers, and comprehensive lists of books for children classified in the following categories: for the youngest, for early childhood, for middle childhood, for later childhood, and for young adolescents. There are also listings of poetry, music, and religious books for children of varying ages.—Reviewed by IRENE FELTMAN.

CHILDREN ARE ARTISTS. By Daniel Men-delowitz. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1953. Pp. 140. 3\$. What do you say when a child shows you his drawings? These and other questions which were addressed to the author caused him to write *Children Are Artists*. To help parents and teachers better understand the growth stages which are the natural steps in a child's artistic development, he describes in words and illustrations the usual changes which occur between early childhood and late adolescence.

The first two chapters, "The Scribbler" and "The Search for the Symbol," and the last chapters, "The Adolescent Finds His World" and "Problems of Adolescent Expression," illustrate the manner in which the author de-

(Continued on page 452)



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Books for Adults

(Continued from page 451)

velops the various stages in the growth process. At the close of the book Dr. Mendelowitz presents a fine annotated bibliography.

The author states that many parents encourage their children in free play, in inventive thinking and talking, but fail to use this same approach in regard to the arts. When the child seeks to explore and express his world in painting and drawing the parent demands, "What is that supposed to be?" "Is that the correct way to draw a house?" "Why don't you make the boy smaller than the tree?" In addition to handicapping the child by attempting to control his method of portraying his ideas, many parents fail to supply the child with the variety of media needed, or a situation for work in which he is able to paint or do woodwork without constant admonition to keep the work area orderly and clean. When a child does request help it should be given him, but such help must be on his own developmental level. Rather than responding to the child's questions as to what is wrong with his horse by a direct suggestion, the parent should cause the child to see horses more discriminatingly, and then encourage him to record his own feeling and ideas.

—Reviewed by ELEANOR VOLBERDING.

THE MODERN COMMUNITY SCHOOL.

*Edited by Edward G. Olsen. New York:
Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 35 W. 32nd*

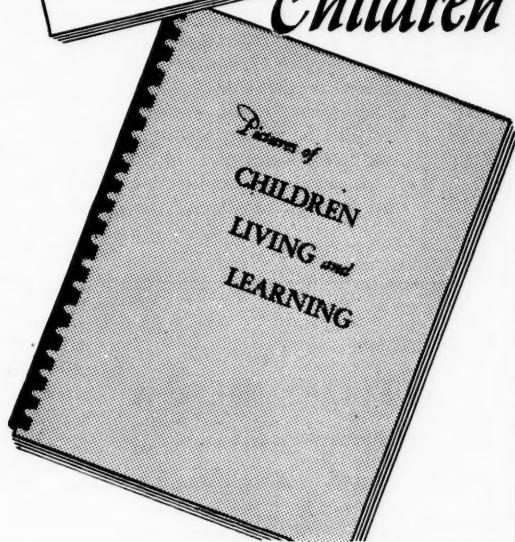
St., 1953. Pp. 246. \$2.50. Here is an excellent presentation of what is being done to draw the schools and their adjacent communities into closer relationship. Specific examples of what a wide variety of school communities are attempting should stimulate many superintendents to take the leadership in forwarding closer community ties. The examples of Urbana, Minneapolis, and Baltimore point out that not only the rural or backward areas, but the urban as well, can be community minded. In the past, metropolitan areas have been given brief consideration.

Three examples of "schools of the future" seem to be almost too Utopian. One might also argue that many other agencies are taking the lead in "raising the living standards of the community" in the way of better farming, better homemaking, and it might be

(Continued on page 454)



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Books for Adults

(Continued from page 452)

unnecessary for the schools directly to sponsor such programs.

One wishes that more might have been said in regard to drawing indifferent or hostile elements in the district into closer relationships. Many newly organized community districts have within their boundaries villages and rural areas with no community feeling, with local pride and jealousy accentuated rather than diminished by the change. What can be done about such cases?—Reviewed by HOMER HALL.

Editor's Note: The February issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION carried a review of *Schools Aren't What They Were* by Carleton Washburne. We have been informed by G. P. Putnam's Sons (210 Madison Ave., New York 16) that that was the English edition. They publish the book under the title *What Is Progressive Education*.

Books for Children

(Continued from page 450)

most delicious smell in the world. He woke up. He heard, 'Pop, pop, pop!'

'Popcorn!' cried Dexter."

As he was enjoying his little feast the other animals smelled it and came, too. Then it was that Dexter won the friendship of them all. Although he had to promise never to show off again and be a nuisance with his smoke, he soon began to blow his hot breath against the ears and popped corn for everyone!

Whimsey for the primary grades.

A BOOK ABOUT GOD. By Florence Mary Fitch. Illustrated by Leonard Weisgard. New York: Lothrop, 419 Fourth Ave., 1953. Pp. 22, 8½ x 10¼ in., \$2. To write a book about God is a great task, but Florence Mary Fitch, who has already distinguished herself by writing *One God* for older children (Lothrop 1944), has now produced with exquisite simplicity *A Book About God* for younger children. The brief text, printed

(Continued on page 459)

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Among the Magazines . . .

Editors, MARIE M. HUGHES and Staff
Wm. M. Stewart School, Univ. of Utah

What articles in the professional magazines of this year have meant something special to you? What was that "special"? In the present column we are sharing some of our responses to the magazines of September through February.

Parents shared with us. Sometimes we forget that teachers are often parents, too. Two of these parent-teachers have shared their professional competence and parenthood with us. Donald J. Lloyd writes about "The Child Who Goes to School" (*Elementary English*, November 1953, pp. 411-416). Here we meet five-year-old Sally who has mastered the language of her home, country, and, also, that of Butch, who lives down the street. The meaning of this prodigious task and the kind of school that will nurture Sally is made clear to us.

Ross L. Mooney states, "I have found that teaching is a process of self-fulfillment for the teacher, brought about by his devotion to the arrangement of circumstances so that those with whom he deals come to their own self-fulfillment." Writing under the title, "Creation, Parents, and Children," (*Progressive Education*, October 1953, pp. 14-17) he reminds us of our tendency to push, pull, and dominate the child. He confesses to the same fault as a parent and teacher, and shows us why such a way of working with children is not for us.

Do you remember Mrs. Long's twelve-year-old Stephen? If not, turn to our *Childhood Education* for November 1952 and February 1954.

For these three parents, we are grateful.

The curriculum is our responsibility. Day after day we make decisions regarding content and procedures. What are our bases for judgment?

Robert Leeper's editorial and Earl C. Kelley's article "What Dare We Leave Out?" (*Educational Leadership*, January 1954, pp. 207-213) provide an important answer. They do not give us a pat formula but do make it

clear that curriculum building, by its very nature, must be a continuous creative process.

Hilda Taba offers aid in "An Articulated Social Studies Curriculum in the Elementary Schools" (*Social Education*, December 1953, pp. 369-372). She reminds us that children come to school with an array of social learnings. She suggests, further, that we use central ideas as focusing concepts, relate content to the social learning of children, provide continuity of understanding of important ideas, and allow for cumulative growth in thinking, social attitudes, and insights.

Doyle M. Bortner, "Pupil Motivation and Its Relationship to the Activity and Social Drives," (*Progressive Education*, October 1953, pp. 5-11) reminds us that motivation accounts for many differences among children of like ability. His suggestions for the use of the basic drive for action or activity, and the social drives of security, mastery, recognition, belonging, and new adventure are stimulating and practical.

For thoughtful consideration is an appraisal of the existing literature on responsibility given us by Betty L. Mitton and Dale B. Harris in "The Development of Responsibility in Children." (*Elementary School Journal*, January 1954, pp. 268-277.)

It is proper that we close our discussion of curriculum with a concern for individual differences. Carleton Washburne summarizes the organizational attempts that have been common and makes a definitive and practical suggestion equal to our understandings of today. "Adjusting the Program to the Child." (*Educational Leadership*, December 1953, pp. 138-147.)

*For our growth as persons interested in more satisfying and productive staff relationships, we find two of the "Workshops" in *Adult Leadership* most helpful. December 1953 issue presented "The Dynamics of Work Groups," and February 1954 presented "Personal Growth Through Experience."*

We started September with Bill Mauldin's five-year-old. (Suggested to us by Marian Jenkins, Los Angeles County Schools). Shall we conclude the year with May E. Heltibrand's "So Much Living To Be Done." (*NEA Journal*, February 1954, pp. 81-82.) This time we have a gallery view of 44 five-year-olds going about the job of living and learning.

Bulletins and Pamphlets

Editor, JAMES KNIGHT

USING FREE MATERIALS IN THE CLASS-ROOM.

Prepared by the Liaison Committee on Instructional Materials. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W., 1953. Pp. 16. 75¢. This pamphlet deals with the issues relating to securing and using the great variety of free and inexpensive instructional materials that are made available to schools through Government agencies, industries, corporations, educational institutions, and nonprofit and professional organizations. It shows how the critical selection of and the process of ordering such materials may be educational activities in themselves. A bibliography of sources is given, along with suggestions for obtaining, evaluating, filing and keeping the file up to date.—Reviewed by LOLA TULLOS, Division of Extension, University of Texas, Austin.

TELL-TALES: "STORIES HAPPEN FOR YOUNG CHILDREN."

Compiled and edited by Ruth Wales and Helen Wiley. Boston: The Nursery Training School, 355 Marlborough St., 1953. Pp. 24. 50¢.

Second in a series prepared under the auspices of the Alumnae Association of the Nursery Training School, this pamphlet illustrates how everyday things and happenings may be woven into stories and verses of interest to young children. Its purpose is to stimulate creativeness in "making" stories, reading stories, or varying old stories for young listeners in the home, the nursery school, and the kindergarten. Attractive illustrations and suggestions to storytellers are scattered throughout the pamphlet. A bibliography of 194 titles gives added value.—J.K.

HOW CHILDREN GROW AND DEVELOP.

By Willard C. Olson and John Lewellen. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. Pp. 48. 40¢. In this "Better Living Booklet" the authors analyze the growth process at different stages of the child's development and suggest ways we can help him make the most of his possibilities. They discuss his mental, emotional, and social development as well as his physical growth. Special stress is given to the idea that each

child has his own special "timetable" which is arranged by nature. Even though children grow at different rates of speed, all children go through approximately the same steps on their individual ways to adulthood. Since each individual does have his own timetable, neither parent nor teacher can hurry a child to a new skill until he is ready for it. Our responsibility is to recognize both the early and late maturers and provide an equally good education for both.—Reviewed by LOLA TULLOS, Division of Extension, University of Texas, Austin.

STEPMOTHERS CAN BE NICE!

By Helen Steers Burgess. New York: Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 E. 38th St., 1953. Pp. 28. 25¢.

Although addressed to stepmothers, this pamphlet has import for everyone who can make her role harder or easier. The presentation is forthright. It gives the range of emotions the stepmother will inevitably have as she faces the facts that the child's life has been disturbed by the loss of the mother and that the father has been married before.

Discussions, illustrated with drawings and clarified with anecdotes, are given to being a "part-time" stepmother, a "full-time" stepmother, and to being the stepmother of a "very young," a "middle-aged," or an "adolescent" child. A section is devoted to relations with in-laws and the final summation stresses the importance of a good marriage.—Reviewed by CATHERINE STRIBLING, Division of Extension, University of Texas, Austin.

BOOKS AND MATERIALS FOR CURRICULUM WORKERS.

An Annual Bibliography. Edited by Harold G. Shane. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W., 1953. Pp. 31. \$1. This master bibliography covers five areas: elementary education; secondary education; administration, supervision, and curriculum; general readings; and teaching and learning materials. There are 189 annotated entries.

Books on the following and many other topics are listed: subject matter areas, human development, behavior, learning, guidance, stories, folk tales, display, audio-visual materials, teacher-parent and teacher-pupil planning, moral and spiritual values, utilization of community resources, citizenship, life adjustment, evaluation, developmental tasks,

health, philosophy, human relations, school community relations, intergroup education, the family, and all the aspects of school administration.—J.K.

WHERE TO BUY 2" X 2" SLIDES, A Subject Directory. Compiled by Elsie A. Phillips. Baltimore: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1953. Pp. 22. Mimeo. 10¢. This directory offers a purchasing guide for slide collections. In Section I, 84 slide sources are listed. Section II is a subject index of 300 entries coded to indicate sources from which slides may be secured. A valuable resource toward assembling a permanent, up-to-date, catalog file of 35mm and 2" x 2" slides.—J.K.

PARENTS AS PARTNERS. By Martha Fuggett Johnson. Louisville, Kentucky: Division of Moral and Spiritual Education, State Department of Education, 1953. Pp. 64. 35¢. This pamphlet attempts to interpret the role of parents, together with schools and other agencies, in building character. In addition it provides suggested material for group study and indicates ways in which groups may be carried on. Parent guidance in channeling simple reflexes and emotions into desirable habits of behavior, the need for early opportunities in decision making, and the influence of the home climate, including adults' examples, are stressed in the development of moral and spiritual values.

More attention is devoted to content than to process in the work of the group. A suggested reading list is given.—Reviewed by A. C. MURPHY, Division of Extension, University of Texas, Austin.

PARENT GROUP EDUCATION AND LEADERSHIP TRAINING. By Aline B. Auerbach, Peter B. Neubauer, M.D., and Marion F. Langer. New York: The Child Study Association of America. 1953. Pp. 21. No price given. Agencies and organizations, both private and public, are giving increasing emphasis to the preservation and strengthening of family life as basic aspects of national planning. Many kinds of parent education programs have grown out of this recognition.

This pamphlet contains three reports: (1) Parent Discussion Groups: Their Role in Parent Education; (2) The Technique of Parent Group Education: Some Basic Con-

(Continued on page 458)

NEW Harper BOOKS

Living and Learning in Nursery School

By MARGUERITA RUDOLPH. A vivid portrayal of day-by-day activities in an actual classroom, this book bridges the gap between theory and practice in the art of nursery school teaching. "Brings one nearer to that delicate perception which makes it possible to know what to say to a child and how to say it."—JESSIE STANTON, Specialist in Nursery School Education.

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By WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, President, Teachers College, Columbia University. "A valuable blueprint with which to judge whether your school is producing the kind of future citizen that you desire and that America needs today as never before."—MARGARET S. LEWISOHN, Public Education Association.

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Bulletins and Pamphlets

(Continued from page 457)

cepts; and (3) Training for Parent Group Leadership. Credit is given to psychology, psychiatry, and child development as focusing attention on the significance of parent-child relationships. Function of leaders and members in groups is discussed, and techniques designed to aid groups in attaining agreed-upon goals are indicated.—Reviewed by A. C. MURPHY.

THE GIFTED CHILD IN THE REGULAR CLASSROOM. By Marian Scheifele. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1953. Pp. 84.

95¢. This publication, Number 12 in a series edited by Hollis L. Caswell, treats the problem of the gifted child in the regular classroom under five headings: (1) Identifying the gifted child, (2) Special problems, (3) Current school practices, (4) Suggested enrichment activities and experiences, and (5) Teacher's role.

Many instruments and techniques are necessary to identify the gifted child. Along with

identification, the special problems arising from lack of synchronization of ability with social and emotional maturity present difficulties to the teacher who has gifted children in the group.

Various practices designed to meet the needs of the gifted are discussed: (1) Acceleration, (2) Special classes and interest groups, and (3) Enrichment in the regular classroom. The philosophy of education held by teachers and parents and the facilities and personnel available will determine individual adaptations of the above practices; but the author feels that the enrichment program offers the greatest opportunity of helping the gifted child to attain full development and complete self-realization, with the teacher as the key person in attainment of these goals. Reviewed by A. C. MURPHY.

FREE AND INEXPENSIVE MATERIALS FOR CONSERVATION EDUCATION.

Compiled by Muriel Beuschlein. Ann Arbor: Richard L. Weaver, P.O. Box 2073, 1953. Pp. 15. 10¢. Approximately 700 items from some 300 different sources are listed. Materials are mentioned from all of the 48

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states. Teachers of agriculture, arts and crafts, home making, science, social studies, directors of instruction, and librarians will find sources for enrichment of instruction.—J.K.

NURSERY SCHOOL PORTFOLIO, Bulletin

No. 1. *Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1200 15th St. N.W., 1953. 12 leaflets, 10¢ each.*

75¢ for portfolio. The 12 four-page leaflets in this portfolio deal with the needs and development of two-, three-, and four-year-olds. Other topics are: the music and science experiences, play activities, records and reports, housing, and cooperation between parents and teachers. Further readings are suggested in the bibliography given with each leaflet.—Reviewed by CATHERINE STRIBLING.

Books for Children

(Continued from page 454)

in large size type, can be read by most sevens and eights. Younger children, for whom it will have to be read, will feel as well as the older ones, the calmness and security conveyed in the illustrations, a feeling which they will someday regard as "the peace that passeth all understanding."

Editor's Note: The 17th Annual Caldecott Award was presented to Ludwig Bemelmans for *Madeline's Rescue*, Viking, for the most distinguished illustrated children's book in 1953.

The 33rd Annual Newbery Award was presented to Joseph Krumgold for . . . And Now Miguel, Crowell, for the most distinguished contribution to American literature for children during 1953.

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Over the Editor's Desk

We Are Sorry The anecdotal accounts of "What Does Crowding Do?" (April) credited the people who supplied us with material. We are sorry that through an oversight two people whose material was used were not listed—Pauline Staats, Denver, Colorado, and Mrs. Orin Fullerton, Morrilton, Arkansas.

In case you are interested in more statistics: The article "What Does Crowding Do?" occupied 10 pages. If we had printed all the material received it would have completely filled the magazine. Our office sent 169 letters in carrying on correspondence for this one important section.

Other Beginning School Practices The September 1953 CHILDHOOD EDUCATION topic on beginning school practices was well received. However, we knew that there were many other good ideas which had not been reported. Some have been called to our attention since then:

Ivy F. Pirtle of West Palm Beach, Florida, reports on a booklet "What Should We Expect of a First Grade Child?" This is a guide to types of activities and experiences that have proved helpful in building a background for the child entering first grade. It was compiled by the principal, first- and second-grade teachers, and mothers of first-grade children. The sections in it had to do with physical and emotional growth behavior traits, "Readin', Ritin', and Rithmetic—types of learning in first grade," the parents' role, a bibliography for parents, and a list of books to read to children.

Mary I. Shamburgh sent a readiness book prepared for use in the Asheboro, North Carolina, schools entitled "When We Are Six." It contains suggestions of what the child is learning to do in relation to health and safety practices, group participation, and suggestions of books children would enjoy hearing read. The book was cleverly illustrated and closed with a "Fable for Parents" on children's eagerness for school.

Ruth Peeler of the P. K. Yonge School, University of Florida, reported how the first grades helped prepare the kindergarteners for first grade the next year. They decided to invite the group to visit them and each child wrote a note to a particular kindergarten child. They planned on all they wanted to

show. An important question was how they could display their reading (in groups of four —two first graders and two kindergarteners). They made certain that the visitors understood that they didn't know how to read when they came into first grade but had worked hard all year to learn. The children chose a story for the teacher to read to the whole group. The variety of activities and material which they had used was shown to the visitors. Lunch was served and the guests departed more secure in their knowledge of what next year held for them.

Copyright and Permission to Reprint

The Educational Press Association had an interesting meeting on copyrights. It reminded me that we have questions about use of our material. As you probably know, the publications of ACEI are copyrighted. This is done to protect the material from misuse through out-of-context quoting and to protect the contributors' rights since they supply the material with no remuneration.

ACEI holds the copyright on the material but when a request to reprint (in any form, even mimeographed) comes in we transmit our permission to the author of the material. The request cannot go directly to the author since we hold the copyright.

In the last year we have had 68 requests to reprint; 6 for magazine digests, 17 permissions to other periodicals, 22 for use in books, and 23 for miscellaneous use.

The most repeated request is for "The Poor Scholar's Soliloquy" by Stephen Corey which appeared in the January 1944 issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION.

Next Year The theme for next year's issues of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION is "What Are Children Learning?" The Editorial Board and other people who helped plan felt there was a need to evaluate learning in terms of values children hold and values held by adults working with them.

Each issue will approach the problems from different vantage points such as—values as a guide for planning, celebrations and special days, continuity of learning, how children build concepts, discipline, children in a bigger world, use of space, and sharing what we know about children.

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